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Eye/Sensor Protection Against Laser Irradiation Organic Nonlinear Optical Materials

MICHAEL E. BOYLE AND ROBERT F. COZZENS

Polymeric Materials Branch Chemistry Division

June 12, 1989



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CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	1
THE HUMAN EYE	5
Vision	5
Vision Damage	7
Protection Strategies	
ORGANIC NONLINEAR OPTICAL MATERIALS	11
Theory	13
Linear Refractive Index	13
Molecular Polarizability	13
Second-Order Molecular Properties	
Third-Order Molecular Properties	20
Material Properties	20
Material Measurements: $\chi^{(2)}$ Materials	27
Material Measurements: $\chi^{(3)}$ Materials	27
Materials Progress	
DEVICE CONCEPTS	43
Material Capabilities	43
Device Designs	
PROPOSED FUTURE RESEARCH EFFORTS	54
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	54
REFERENCES	78



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EYE/SENSOR PROTECTION AGAINST LASER IRRADIATION ORGANIC NONLINEAR OPTICAL MATERIALS

INTRODUCTION

Lasers are playing an important and increasing role in modern society. Their present uses range from compact disc players to optical data-storage and communication systems. Because of this wide-spread use, the continuing expansion of lasers into other arenas and the low damage thresholds of human eyes and electro-optic sensors [Fig. 1], there is increasing concern about eye and sensor protection from laser irradiation.

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Coupling these factors with the varied frequencies available using today's high-powered lasers (Table 1 and Fig. 2) makes eye and sensor protection a complex and difficult task. That is, an eye/sensor protection device must be capable of responding to a wide range of wavelengths (from the UV to the IR), able to handle irradiances on the order of mega to gigawatts/cm², the output currently available in common laboratory environments, and be transparent in the absence of an incident laser beam. Such a protection device must also have a response time on the order of picoseconds (10⁻¹² sec) or better to safeguard against pulsed laser irradiation.

The eye/sensor protection devices available today are narrow band filters^{3,4} that can only protect against a limited number of fixed wavelengths; they cannot protect against a frequency agile laser. Research is underway in many different disciplines to develop frequency agile protection devices and one area that appears particularly promising involves the use of organic polymeric nonlinear optical materials. Nonlinear

MAXIMUM PERMISSIBLE EXPOSURE OF EYES

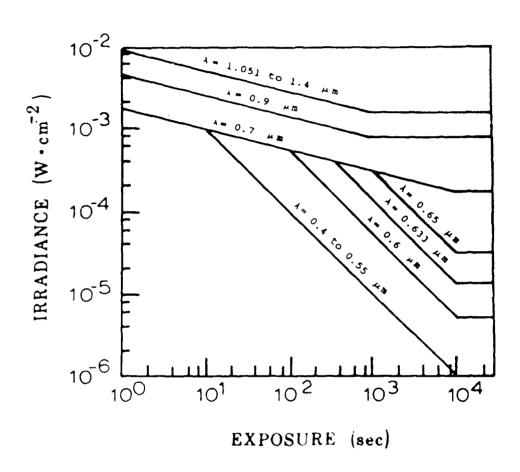


Figure 1: A plot of the maximum exposure of eyes to laser irradiation as a function of irradiance and wavelength. For exposure times greater than 10^4 seconds, there is a constant irradiance threshold. This figure was adapted from Ref. 1.

TABLE 1

LASERS AVAILABLE IN COMMON LABORATORY ENVIRONMENTS

POWER	MW MW Watts MW MW MW MW MW	MM
OUTPUT POWER CW PUI	Watts Watts Watts Watts Watts	ΚW
OPERATING WAVELENGTH RANGE (micrometers)	0.20 - 0.95 0.49, 0.51 0.63, 0.69 0.65 - 1.05 0.70 - 0.82 0.86, 0.91 1.06 1.64,2.8-2.9 2.06 2.35 2.6 - 3.0 3.8 - 4.0 5.0 - 7.0	9.2 - 11.0
LASER TYPE	DYE ARGON Nd:YAG (2 w) HeNe Ti:Sapphire RUBY Alexandrite GaAs Nd:YAG Er:YAG Ho:YAG DF CO	² 00

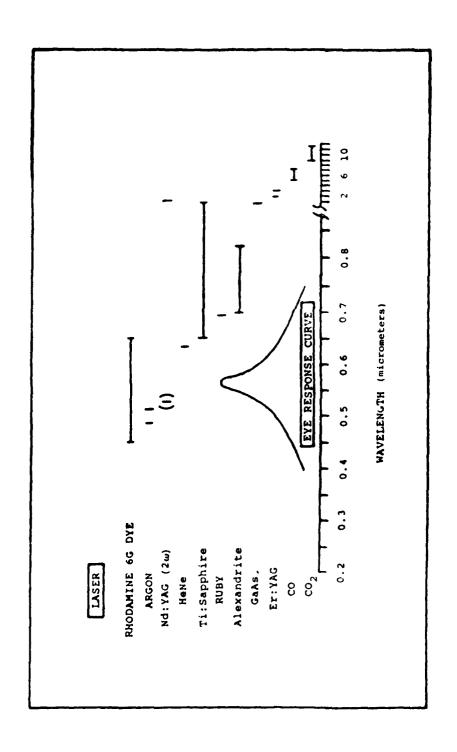


Figure 2: A graphic display of the overlap of lasers commonly available in modern laboratories and the spectral response curve of the human eye; adapted from Ref. 3.

optical materials are those whose optical properties have a nonlinear dependence on the intensity of the incident light. The design flexibility and fast response ti e $(10^{-14} - 10^{-15}$ sec) offered by organic polymeric nonlinear optical materials has made this a very active and promising research area. 5^{-12} , 15, 17^{-21} (Nonlinear optical processes on this time scale are mainly electronic in nature. 5^{-17})

It is the purpose of this report to review the progress that has been made in developing organic polymeric nonlinear optical materials with respect to eye/sensor protection technology. We begin by discussing the functioning of the eye and defining the desired eye protection parameters. This is followed by a brief introduction to the origin of nonlinear optical effects and how they are measured. Recent developments in nonlinear optical organic materials are then presented, with specific examples of proposed or prototyped eye/sensor protection devices following. Finally, future areas of interest are defined.

THE HUMAN EYE

Of all the organs of the human body, the eye is probably the most fascinating and intricate: its sensitivity to brightness can vary by a factor of 100 billion, the dark adapted eye is capable of detecting single photons and it works with nearly 100% quantum efficiency. 2,22 It is these kinds of extraordinary qualities that make it difficult to protect the eye from laser damage.

VISION

The physical process of vision begins when light enters the eye at the cornea (index of refraction = 1.376)²² which is a major focussing element (Fig. 3a). Further focussing is provided by the lens, the next element in the optical path, which allows for near and distant vision by changing shape. The iris, located behind the lens, is a power limiter; it varies the pupil size, controlling the amount of light entering the eye. The incident light continues on through a clear jelly-like substance, the vitreous humor, onto the photosensitive retina, the detector.

The retina is composed of photoreceptors, nerve cells and pigment layers. The photoreceptors, the light sensitive components, are located in the last cellular layer and point away from the light source (Fig. 3b). There are of two types of photoreceptors, rods and cones. Cones are found packed in the fovea (Fig. 3a) and are responsible for color vision and vision in bright light while the rods are distributed throughout the remainder of the retina and are responsible for vision in dim light. 2,22 The structure of rods and cones is different (Fig. 3c), the largest difference being in the region

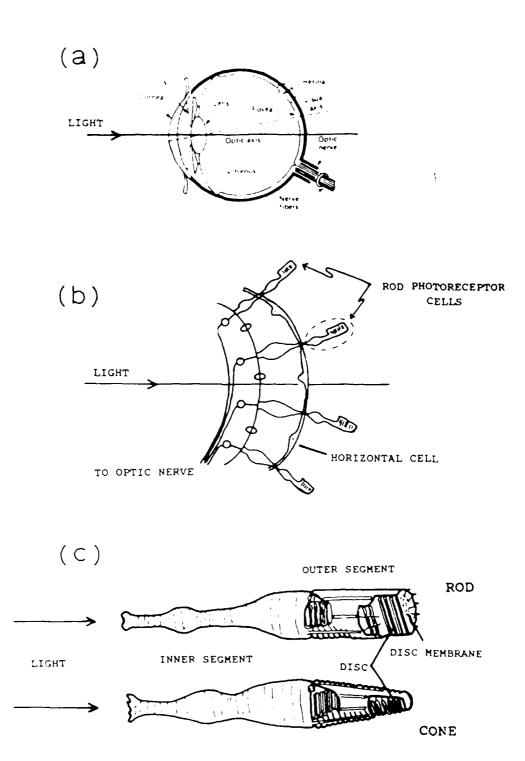


Figure 3: The major components of the human eye are shown in (a), with expanded views of the structure of the retina (b) and of the rod and cone cells (c). This figure was adapted from Ref. 22.

where the light absorbing pigments (called rhodopsins) are embedded in regenerating membrane discs. 22

The photosensitive rhodopsins contain the light absorbing molecule retinal which is chemically linked to the protein opsin. The absorption of light induces an isomerization in retinal (Fig. 4) which is thought to cause a structural change in opsin. 22 The isomerization of the protein is believed to separate charged groups and thereby effectively store energy (quantum yield of $\sim\!60\%$) within a few picoseconds (10 $^{-12}$ secs). 22 The transduction of this light-induced response to the neuronal network in the retina is accomplished via the plasma membrane and chemical messengers. 22

VISION DAMAGE

Although vision is limited to the eye's response over a relatively narrow wavelength region (see Fig. 2), light from outside this region can have a profound effect on sight. The cornea absorbs infrared radiation $(1.4-10~\mu\text{m})^{1-3}$, 23 and the cornea combined with the lens can absorb near ultraviolet radiation $(0.2-0.4~\mu\text{m})$. $^{1-3}$, 23 Therefore, ultraviolet and infrared radiation can damage the cornea causing photokeratitis, corneal burns and cataracts $^{1-3}$, 23 and thereby impair vision. However, the greatest danger comes from visible to near-infrared radiation $(0.4-1.4~\mu\text{m})$ which the cornea and lens transmit, focussing onto the retina (optical gains on the order of 10^5). $^{1-3}$ Damage to the part of the retina providing fine detail discrimination and color sensitivity, the fovea, drastically affects vision while damage to the retina outside the fovea does not seriously impair the ability to see. 2 , 3 Unfortunately, little recovery is possible from damage to either part of the retina. 2 , 3

Injuries to the eye from laser irradiation are usually grouped into three classes: photochemical, thermal and mechanical. 1,2,23,24 Photochemical damage involves chemical bond breaking and is associated with long exposures to short wavelength light (blue to ultraviolet). 2,24 Thermal damage is caused by visible and infrared radiation for pulse lengths of 1 microsecond or longer 2,24 and includes denaturization processes, i.e., the uncoiling of protein molecules resulting from the breaking of weak hydrogen bonds. Such processes can lead to the rupture of cell walls and enzyme inactivations. Very short pulse lengths (less than microseconds) result in mechanical damage to the eye in the form of acoustic and shock waves. 2,24 It is the latter two damage mechanisms which are of the greatest interest with respect to eye protection from laser irradiation.

Thermal eye damage is usually discussed in terms of the amount of energy incident on the eye: it is the cumulative energy that causes injury. $^{1-3}$ The following are commonly used

Figure 4: The light induced transformation of cis-retinal to trans-retinal which is believed to cause a conformation change in the protein opsin, beginning the light detection process in human eyes.

EYE DAMAGE VS SPECTRAL REGION

106 UV-C | UV-B | UV-A | VISIBLE | IR-A | IR-B | IR-C CORNEAL BURNS 3000 CATARACTS 1400 THERMAL SKIN BURNS RETINAL BURNS 160 DEGRADATION COLOR/NIGHT VISION 400 CAT. PHOTOKERATISIS 280 ERYTHEMA 100 WAVELENGTH REGIONS (mu)

Figure 5: A schematic diagram of the various types of eye and skin damage that can accompany laser irradiation in various wavelength regions; adapted from Ref. 1.

EYE EXPOSURE LIMITS TO LASER IRRADIATION

	(5)	(MPE)	Notes
i de la constanta de la consta			
0,200 to 0,302	10-9 to 3 × 104	3 × 10 ⁻³ J·cm ⁻²	
0.303	10 3 ×	_	
0.304	to 3 ×	<u> </u>	
0.305	10 ⁻⁹ to 3 × 10 ⁴	10-3 J	
0.306	10 ⁻⁹ to 3 × 10 ⁴	1.6 × 10 ⁻² J·cm ⁻²	
0.307	10-9 to 3 × 104	10-5 J	
0.308	10 ⁻⁹ to 3 × 10 ⁴	× 10 ⁻² J·	
0.309	10"9 to 3 × 104	$6.3 \times 10^{-2} \text{ J} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$	or 0.56 t 14 J cm ⁻² , whichever is lower.
0.310	10 ⁻⁹ to 3 × 10 ⁴	<u>.</u>	
0.311	10-9 to 3 × 104	÷	
0.312	10 ⁻⁹ to 3 × 10 ⁴	× 10-1	
0.313	10 ⁻⁹ to 3 × 10 ⁴	÷	
0.314	10 ⁻⁹ to 3 × 10 ⁴	_	
0.315 to 0.400	10 ⁻⁰ to 10	<u>.</u>	
0.315 to 0.400	10 to 3 × 104	÷	
Visible and Near Infrared			
0.400 to 0.700	10 ⁻⁹ to 1.8× 10 ⁻⁵	$5 \times 10^{-7} \text{ J} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$	
0.400 to 0.700	1.8 × 10 ⁻⁵ to 10	_	
0.400 to 0.550	10 to 104	<u> </u>	CA = 1 for \ = 0.400 to 0.700 mm.
0.550 to 0.700	10 to T ₁	_	CA = 102.000-0.7000 for \text{\text{-0.700}} to 1.050 \text{\text{mn}}
0.550 to 0.700	7, to 104	_	
0.400 to 0.700	104 to 3 × 104	₹	CB = 1 for \ = 0.400 to 0.550 mm.
0.700 to 1.050	10 ⁻⁹ to 1.8 × 10 ⁻⁵	-	C. = 10'30" for \ = 0.550 to 0 700 an
0.700 to 1.050	1.8×10^{-5} to 10^3	1.8 CA1374 × 10-3 J · cm-2	T1 = 10 x 10 204-63301 for 3 = 0.550 to 0 70
1.051 to 1.400	10-9 to 5 × 10-5	_	
1.051 to 1.400	5×10^{-5} to 10^{3}	_	
0.700 to 1.400	103 to 3 × 104	320 CA × 10-6 W · cm-2	
Far Infrared			
1.4 to 103	10-0 10 10-1	10 ⁻² J · cm ⁻²	
	10-7 to 10	0.56 t ^{1/4} J · cm ⁻²	
	01 <	0.1 W · cm ⁻²	
1.54 only	•_01 o1 ₆ _01	1.0 J · cm ⁻²	

*Adapted from Ref. 1

eye damage thresholds, W_e : 1

* For pulse durations of 1 - 18 ns: $W_e = 0.5 \, \mu \text{J/cm}^2$ * For longer pulse durations, up to 10 secs: $W_e = 1.8 \, \text{t}^{3/4} \, \text{mJ/cm}^2$ (t in seconds)

As an example, using the forementioned damage thresholds and a value of 100 mW/cm^2 for the output of the sun, 2 an eye protection device must attenuate the light by a factor equivalent to 1.5 optical density units (ODU) (a transmission reduction of 97%) when directed at the sun.

PROTECTION STRATEGIES

Any successful eye/sensor protection device must interact with and attenuate the laser light before it reaches the detector system. The interaction of light with matter is usually classified in one of three categories: absorption, dispersion or scattering. Absorption can be an effective protection strategy and representative examples of absorption devices under investigation include particle suspension, chalcogenide, VO2, Ge, and two-photon absorption activated power limiters. However, such devices often have reduced transparency in the visible spectral region or unacceptable response times. Therefore, much of the recent research into eye/sensor protection has focussed on using dispersion or scattering to redirect the light and this is where nonlinear optical materials have the greatest potential for impact in the near term: nonlinear optical materials can have unique index of refraction properties and fast response times.

ORGANIC NONLINEAR OPTICAL MATERIALS

Nonlinear optical materials have been known and studied for over two decades with most research efforts being successfully directed at inorganic materials, 5,25,26 in particular, inorganic crystals²⁷, glasses^{28,29} and semiconductors.³⁰⁻³² The most familiar example of inorganic nonlinear optical materials are crystals such as potassium dihydrogen phosphate (KDP) and lithium niobate (LiNbO3). However, more recently, interest has focussed on such inorganic materials as tungsten bronze crystals. 33 With the recent emphasis on optical computing and communication, a need for nonlinear optical materials with better mechanical processing and physical properties than available in typical inorganic nonlinear optical materials has become apparent and researchers have turned to examine organic polymeric materials .9,14,17-21,34-39 It is now generally agreed that organic materials have the potential for nonlinear optical effects which are orders of magnitude better than currently used inorganic materials. 5, 6, 12, 14, 17-21, 34, 37, 38, 40-45 is based on the origin of the nonlinear optical effect in organic materials: the easily polarized molecular electric fields. 7,10,14,15 Extensive research is underway on the development of nonlinear optical organic materials and a

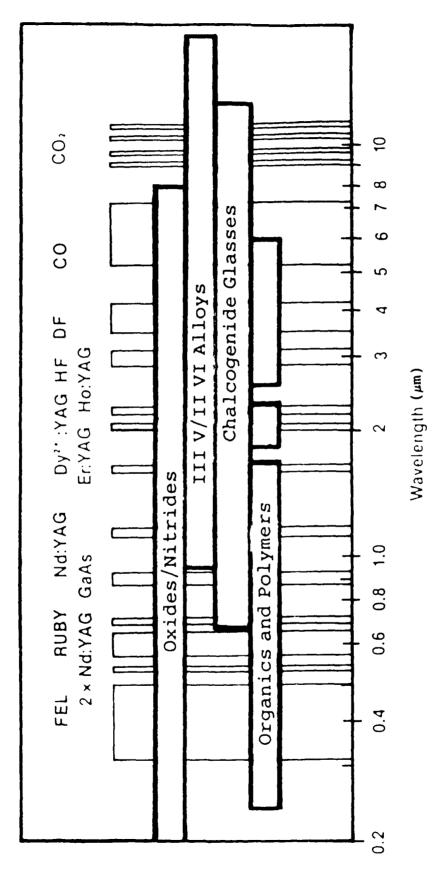


Figure 6: A graphic representation of various lasers available in modern laboratories and the spectral transmission windows of potential laser hardening materials.

detailed theoretical understanding and description of the origin of these optical effects. $^{5-21}$, $^{26-189}$ It is the latter that is discussed in the following section.

THEORY

Linear Refractive Index

In order to develop a more comprehensive understanding of nonlinear optical effects and materials, it will be useful to briefly examine the origin of the <u>linear</u> refractive index.

Consider the classical model (Lorentzian) of an atom with one electron and the effect of applying a static electric field: the electron-nucleus distance is altered - a polarization is induced. For the simple case considered here, the distance change is linearly proportional to the applied field. If an oscillating electric field (like in a low intensity monochromatic light beam) is applied, the electron oscillates about its equilibrium position. This oscillating dipole emits electromagnetic radiation (light) at the same frequency as the incident light but with a different phase due to the restoring forces acting on the electron.

Extending this simple example to include a row of N atoms (Fig. 7), we see that a monochromatic light wave having passed through the N atoms will have a different phase than if it had not. That is, the light wave appears to move more slowly through the sample than through the surrounding vacuum. The phase difference is directly related to the number of atoms in the row, N, and therefore to the sample length or thickness. The ratio of the speed of light in the sample, C_{sample} , and in vacuum, C_{vacuum} , is known as the index of refraction, n = $C_{\text{vacuum}}/C_{\text{sample}}$.

An oscillating dipole has a toroidal shaped radiation pattern (a $\sin \theta$ dependence, where θ is the angle between the axis of the dipole and the direction of observation) and therefore reradiates light in many directions. However, only the reradiation in the forward direction is phase-matched and therefore additive. That is, any radiation not in the forward direction is out of phase with the radiation in that same direction from other atoms and so destructively interferes. Also implicit in the simple models discussed above, is that all the dipoles radiate the same fraction of the incident wave. If one group of dipoles radiates a different fraction, some of the reradiated light will be visible in other directions - scattered radiation.

Molecular Polarizability

Noncentrosymmetric molecules (those without a center of symmetry) have complex charge distributions and, therefore, possess an intrinsic dipole. Placing such a molecule in a

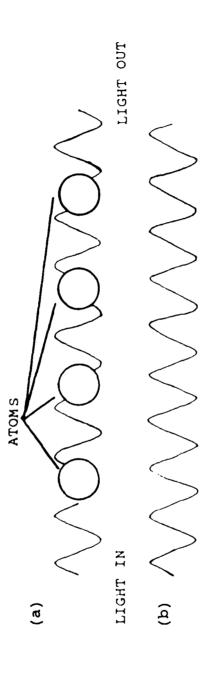


Figure 7: Although the light beams a and b begin in phase, they are out of phase after beam a travels through the row of atoms. This is the origin of the index of refraction.

static electric field (E) distorts the charge distribution changing the dipole. When the electric field is small compared to the internal fields due to the electrons, the molecular polarizability (p), which is proportional to the dipole moment, can be described in a power series 49

$$p = p_0 + \alpha \cdot E + \beta \cdot EE + \gamma \cdot EEE + \dots$$
 (1)

where α , β , γ are the static molecular polarizability tensors, respectively, the linear polarizability and the second and third-order hyperpolarizability. At lower field intensities (small E's) only the first term in equation 1 (α term) has an appreciable effect on p, and this is the case discussed in the earlier atomic example. As the field intensity increases, the second two terms (the second- and third-order hyperpolarizabilities, respectively) become more important. It is these latter two terms that are responsible for a molecule's nonlinear optical behavior. Physically, these terms represent a measure of the size of the nonlinear effect. That is, how easy it is to induce a polarization or equivalently, how tightly bound the electrons are to the nuclear framework. (The looser the binding, the further the electrons can be driven away from the nuclear framework resulting in a larger polarization and thereby, a larger nonlinear optical effect.) The above equation is modified for centrosymmetric molecules by the removal of the polarizability term p_0 (with a center of symmetry, there is no intrinsic polarizability) and removal of the second-order term $(\beta = 0)$. Details are discussed below.

With the advent of the laser, large optical fields became available and it was natural to consider time-dependent fields. The equation describing the time-dependent molecular polarizability retains the notation of the static case for historical reasons, 49 i.e.,

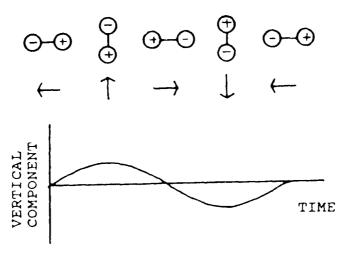
$$p = p_0 + \alpha(-\omega; \omega) \cdot \mathbb{E}(\omega) + \beta(-\omega; \omega_1, \omega_2) \cdot \mathbb{E}(\omega_1) \cdot \mathbb{E}(\omega_2) + \gamma(-\omega; \omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3) \cdot \mathbb{E}(\omega_1) \cdot \mathbb{E}(\omega_2) \cdot \mathbb{E}(\omega_3) + \dots$$
 (2)

where the coefficients are complex tensors and have frequency dependence. For example, the common linear polarization term $\alpha(-\omega;\omega)$ is composed of a real part, corresponding to the index of refraction, and an imaginary part, corresponding to absorption. The frequency dependent tensor notation uses negative signs to indicate conservation of momentum and subscript arguments to indicate the frequencies of the electric fields. For example, in second harmonic generation, the second-order microscopic polarizability tensor is represented as $\beta(-2\omega;\omega,\omega)$ or for the linear electro-optic effect (electric-field-induced-birefringence with a linear field dependence), $\beta(-\omega;0,\omega)$.

We can obtain some important general information about the molecular properties associated with nonlinear optical effects by examining equation 2. First, consider an isotropic molecule

MOLECULAR DIPOLE MOMENT

(A) ROTATION



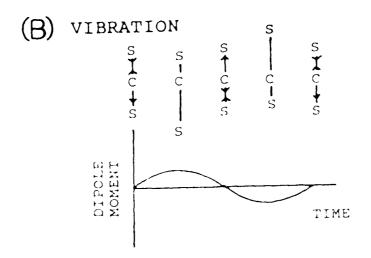


Figure 8: In (a) a noncentrosymmetric rigid rod molecule is used to demonstrate the origin of the molecular dipole. The arrows indicate the direction of the intrinsic dipole moment. In (b) the origin of the molecular dipole is shown to be due to vibrations in a centrosymmetric molecule, i.e., one that possesses a center of symmetry.

and the second-order hyperpolarizability term involved in second harmonic generation: $+P^{(2)} = \beta(-2\omega;\omega,\omega) \cdot E(\omega) \cdot E(\omega)$. For an isotropic molecule, β is independent of direction and therefore constant. Thus, if the axis direction is reversed $(x \rightarrow -x, y \rightarrow -y, z \rightarrow -z)$ while leaving the electric field and the dipole moment unchanged in direction, the second-order term of equation 2 becomes, $-P^{(2)} = \beta(-2\omega;\omega,\omega) \cdot (-E(\omega))(-E(\omega)) = +P^{(2)}$. This can only be true if $+P^{(2)} = -P^{(2)}$, i.e., $\beta = 0$. In other words, centrosymmetric molecules only have contributions from odd-order terms in equation 2; they cannot exhibit even-order effects such as second harmonic generation. 5, 8, 12, 17-21, 35, 41, 49-51, 53-56

Second, it is clear that molecules with easily polarized electron clouds have the greatest potential for large nonlinear optical coefficients. Thus, we do not expect saturated organic molecules (i.e., those without π bonds) to exhibit much of a nonlinear optical effect: the bonding electrons are well localized so only small changes in charge distribution with changes in local field environments are expected. 35, 41, 48-52 However, unsaturated, conjugated molecules with their large π electron delocalization should and do exhibit large nonlinear optical responses. 17-21, 35, 41, 48-51 A more detailed look at the appropriate molecular properties for specific nonlinear responses is presented below.

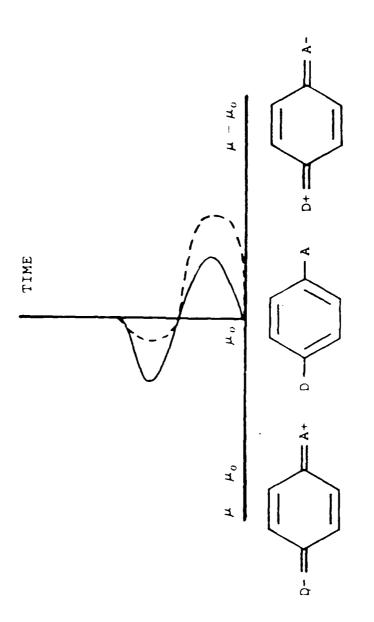
SECOND-ORDER MOLECULAR PROPERTIES

The majority of work reported on organic nonlinear optical materials has focussed on second-order effects 12,14,17-21,40-75 (molecules with large β coefficients in equation 2) for the obvious reason that the effect is larger than the third order response and therefore easier to measure. There exists a good understanding of the origin of this effect and how to optimize molecular and bulk material properties to enhance it. 8,12,17-20,35,37,38,40-75 For organic molecules the general molecular properties that are required for good second-order nonlinear response are: noncentrosymmetry, planarity and delocalized electron systems. 8,12,1720,35,37,38,40,41,44,45,48,54-68 Additionally, substituent groups that enhance the charge asymmetry of the molecule, i.e., strong electron donor and electron acceptor groups, lead to low-lying charge-transfer resonance states and thereby enhanced β 's. 8,12,17-20,40,41,54,55,57-59,63,69,72-75 The charge asymmetry inducing substituents make it easier to polarize the molecule: the flow of charge is enhanced in one direction - like an "optical diode". (See Fig. 9). $^{49-51}$

In the following table, examples showing the importance of the above molecular properties in enhancing second-order effects are given. 72 , 73

"OPTICAL DIODE"

T ELECTRON POLARIZABILITY ENHANCEMENT



the substituted benzene response is given by the dashed line. (The μ 's are the dipole moments for the indicated resonance states.) Notice that the addition of donor and The solid line indicates the polarization induced in unsubstituted benzene; acceptor groups enhances the polarization of the π electrons in one direction vs the other - the "optical diode". This figure was adapted from Ref. 49. Figure 9:

TABLE 3

RELATION OF MOLECULAR STRUCTURE TO β

PROPERTY DESCRIPTION	STANDARD	MORE EFFECTIVE ELECTRON DONOR AND ACCEPTOR; NON PLANAR DONOR	FORCED COPLANARITY VIA RING FORMATION	INCREASED CONJUGATION	INCREASED CONJUGATION	NON-PLANAR	Planar	COMBINATION OF ALL MOLECULAR PROPERTIES
$\beta \times 10^{-30} \text{ esu}$ (1.9 μ m)	5.7	21.4	41.8	20.1	50.7	23.4	61.6	111.2
MOLECULE	изи — ноз	NO> CH		N, P NO2	"," \\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	H (CM,) 2 CE H CE H WO,	W · CH · · · 2 C = M · K · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	" · H · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

*Adapted from Refs. 72 and 73

TO THE CONTER MOLECULAR PROPERTIES

The theory and understanding of third-order processes (where is an equation 2 is significant) and their origin in organic molecules is still in its infancy but has seen remarkable progress over the past few years. 6-11,14,18-20,34,37,38,48,52,76-89 The molecular origin of this effect is believed to be related to the correlated motion of electrons and to highly charge correlated virtual excitations (Fig. 10). 58, 10, 18, 20, 37, 38, 48, 74, 76, 78-80, 84 The correlated motions are believed to arise from the combined action of electron-phonon and coulombic interactions. 6,8,10,37,38,48,74,76,78-80,85 However, the magnitude of the electron-phonon coupling contribution is not clear. 10 , 76

Identification and characterization of the molecular properties which lead to enhanced third-order effects is under study. The most important molecular property appears to be planar conjugation. There is some evidence that ladder polymers (polymers formed using fused aromatic rings) may be superior to open chain polymers because of improved π orbital overlap 13 , 37 , 38 , 76 , 80 - 82 and it is predicted by some researchers that γ will not increase beyond that observed for 20-25 repeat units (~ 60 Å).6,37,38,76,78,79 There is also experimental evidence suggesting that the incorporation of certain heteroatoms into the conjugation length can dramatically increase the third-order effect 10,37,38,76,81,82, again through improved * orbital overlaps. Another property that may be important and that is under investigation is the effect of intermolecular bonding, e.g., hydrogen bonding. 90

Charge-induced asymmetry as a means for enhancing thirdorder effects remains a controversial issue: a great deal of electron delocalization may arise from charge-induced separations. Further experimental investigations are required in order to assess its importance. 86-88

MATERIAL PROPERTIES

The polarization induced in a material by the application of an electric field, E, is described by

$$P = P_0 + \chi^{(1)}E + \chi^{(2)}EE + \chi^{(3)}EEE + \dots$$
 (3)

where P is the material polarizability, Po is the intrinsic polarizability and $\chi^{(i)}$ are the macroscopic material coefficients known as the material susceptibilities. The macroscopic susceptibilities are related to the microscopic hyperpolarizabilities as shown below.

$$\chi(1) = N\alpha F(\omega)^{2}$$

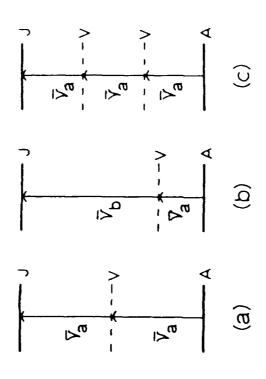
$$\chi(2) = N\beta F(\omega_{1}) F(\omega_{2}) F(\omega_{3})$$
(4)

$$\chi(2) = N\beta F(\omega_1) F(\omega_2) F(\omega_3)$$

$$\chi(3) = N\gamma F(\omega_1) F(\omega_2) F(\omega_3) F(\omega_4)$$
(5)

VIRTUAL EXCITATION:

CANNOT BE OBSERVED; A PHOTON IS NOT ABSORBED WHICH INDUCES A DIPOLE IN THE MOLECULE WHICH THEN SAID TO BE IN A VIRTUAL STATE. 3 AN INTERMEDIATE ELECTRONIC STATE BUT



The absorption of three identical photons (c) ates a ground electronic state , J an The absorption of two identical photons (a) and two different energy A indicates a ground electronic state , J excited electronic state and V a virtual state. via virtual states are shown. states is also shown. via virtual photons (b) Figure 10:

N is the number density of molecules and F is the local field factor at the specified frequency, i.e., the value of the electric field at the site of the molecule. F is a difficult quantity to estimate because of the mutual polarization of molecules in dense phases. 49 , 50 , 57 , 61 , 93 Therefore, great care must be taken in relating microscopic and macroscopic quantities. This is especially true for equations relating $\chi^{(2)}$ to the second-order polarizability, β , because a detailed knowledge of the projection of the tensor onto the oriented molecule is required. 17 , 41 , 49 , 50 , 57 , 93 Equation 5 is for the simplest case of a "rigid lattice-oriented gas" where all the molecules point in the same direction and are fixed in space. 17 , 49 , 50

Molecular orientation within a medium is an important aspect of both $\chi^{(2)}$ and $\chi^{(3)}$ nonlinear optical materials. 12,17-21,43,53,56,63-66,72-74,91-94 The more ordered the molecules within the material, the larger the material response (see Fig.11). The two most popular methods for ordering molecules in materials are, electric field poling, 53,56,64,92-94 primarily used for $\chi^{(2)}$ materials, and Langmuir-Blodgett film deposition, 43,66,95 used for both $\chi^{(2)}$ and $\chi^{(3)}$ materials.

Electric field poling works well for $\chi^{(2)}$ materials because of the required molecular charge asymmetry and its application to guest/host systems is diagrammed in Fig. 12. Initially, the guests are frozen in a random orientation in the polymeric host. The material is then heated to a temperature greater than the glass transition temperature of the host. This allows the guest molecules to rotate within the host. An electric field is then applied, causing the guest molecules to preferentially orient along the field direction. The material is cooled below the host's glass transition temperature, while maintaining the orienting electric field, thus freezing the guest molecules in an ordered, noncentrosymmetric orientation. The use of this technique to orient $\chi^{(2)}$ active side chains of main chain polymer backbones (Fig. 13) is also obvious and an area of active research. 41,72,73,96-100

While high degrees of order can be initially achieved using this technique, the molecular order does decay with time due to thermal relaxation and the inevitable increase in entropy of the system. Half-life for randomization can vary from a few days to a few years depending on the poling conditions and the particular molecules involved. 53,100,101 A concentrated research effort is underway to increase half-lives. 53,100,101 For example, adding functional groups to the pendant side chains to serve as order preserving 'Hooks and Eyes' (Fig. 14), or dispersing the nonlinear optically active molecules in piezoelectric hosts where the intrinsic electric field are methods being examined to help maintain the preferred intermolecular orientation.

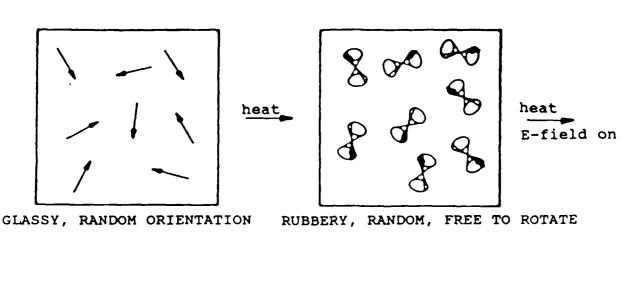
Types of Molecular Packing

Packing	Туре	Order	Magnitude
\ /	Non-centric	Second	Moderate
	Non-centric	Second	Strong
	Centric	Third	Strong
	Centric	Third	Weak

- + Direction of dipole moment

Figure 11: The effects of molecular packing on the magnitude of second and third order non-linear optical material properties are indicated above. The arrows indicate the direction of the dipole moment.

ELECTRIC FIELD POLING



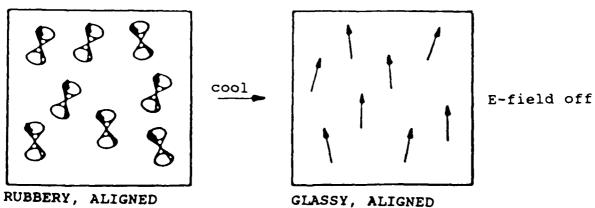


Figure 12: A graphic depiction of the electric field poling technique. In the first step, the composite material is heated above the glass transition temperature of the polymer host. An electric field is then applied to orient the molecules and the material is allowed to cool, freezing the guest molecules in a particular orientation. Adapted from Ref. 185.

ELECTRIC FIELD POLING OF LIQUID CRYSTAL SIDE CHAIN POLYMERS

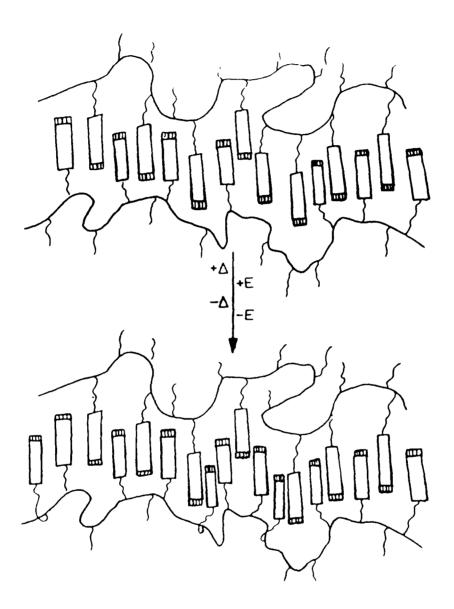


Figure 13: The electric field poling technique applied to liquid crystal side chain polymers. The rectangles represent the nonlinear mesogens; the hatched boxes are to assist in indicating orientation.

CHEMICAL "HOOKS AND EYES"

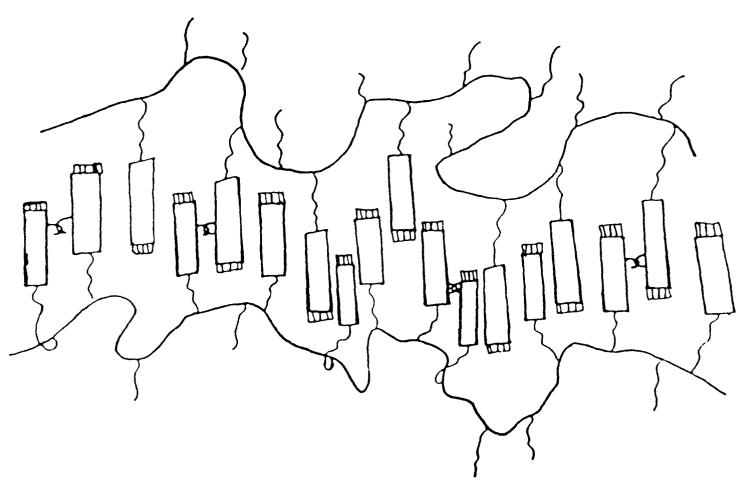


Figure 14: Chemical "Hooks and Eyes" could be used to assist in maintaining the orientation of the non-linear mesogenic pendant groups (the rectangular boxes as in Fig. 13) of liquid crystal side chain polymers after poling. Such a concept could be based on strong photo-induced covalent bonds (crosslinking) or weaker hydrogen bonding.

The Langmuir-Blodgett deposition technique allows for monomolecular control of orientation and composition. $^{43,66,95,102-107}$ This technique requires surface active molecules i.e., molecules with hydrophilic and hydrophobic ends, and is useful in preparing both $\chi^{(2)}$ and $\chi^{(3)}$ materials. The technique is diagrammed in Fig. 15. The surface active molecules are spread onto the surface of the water and compressed to form a monomolecular film. Then, by repeated dipping, monomolecular film layers can be deposited onto a substrate. Unfortunately, Langmuir-Blodgett films are often contaminated with crystallite regions causing unacceptable amounts of light scattering. $^{95,102-104}$

MATERIAL MEASUREMENTS: $\chi^{(2)}$ MATERIALS

There are several experimental methods available for measuring/characterizing second-order nonlinear optical materials. 108,109 Several of these methods are listed below and diagrams (Figs. 15-20) describing the techniques are shown on the following pages along with some of their advantages and disadvantages. The choice of characterizing method depends on the type of descriptive information desired and the physical form of the material.

X⁽²⁾ CHARACTERIZATION METHODS

SECOND HARMONIC GENERATION

SINGLE CRYSTAL SECOND HARMONIC GENERATION

EFISH

POLYMER POLING

ELECTRO-OPTIC EFFECT

MATERIAL MEASUREMENTS: $\chi^{(3)}$ MATERIALS

Experiment complexity dramatically increases when making measurements on $\chi^{(3)}$ materials as compared to $\chi^{(2)}$ materials: 78 , 79 , 109 all materials, ranging from air to the sample holder, can exhibit third-order effects (there are no symmetry restrictions) 17 , 18 , 20 , 34 , 35 , 41 and the effect is small while the sample materials are often of poor optical quality. 14 , 88 , 46 , 81 , 82 In addition, the experimenter must be concerned with resonant vs. nonresonant effects and, in some measurement methods, with the origin of the intensity dependent index of refraction, 12 , 9 , 11 , 29 , 81 , 82 , 110 , 111 Before describing a few of the methods available for measuring $^{(3)}$ materials, resonant enhancement and intensity dependent refractive indices will be briefly discussed.

 $\chi^{(3)}$ may be expressed as the sum of two types of susceptibilities due to resonant (R) and nonresonant (NR) contributions 10, 17, 18, 20, 110

$$\chi^{(3)} = \chi^{(3)}_{R} + \chi^{(3)}_{NR} \tag{7}$$

LANGMUIR-BLODGETT TECHNIQUE

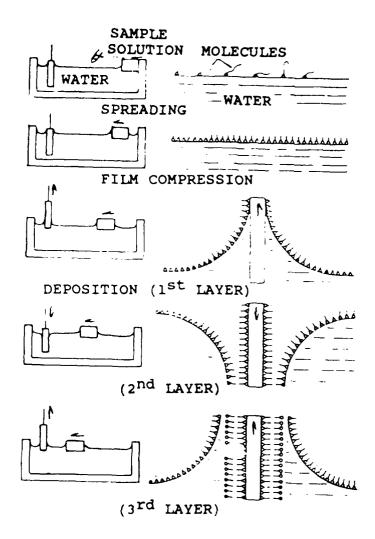
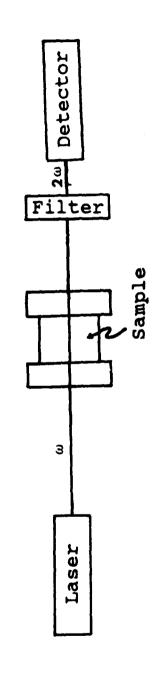


Figure 15: A descriptive outline of the production of a thin-film using the Langmuir-Blodgett technique.

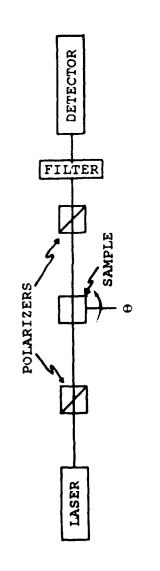
POWDER SHG

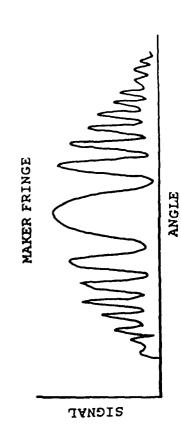


CONTRIBUTIONS TO OPTICAL NONLINEARITY CANNOT RESOLVE MICRO- AND MACROSCOPIC MATERIAL FORM: MICROCRYSTALLINE POWDER ADVANTAGES: USEFUL FOR SCREENING DISADVANTAGES:

Figure 16

SINGLE CRYSTAL SHG





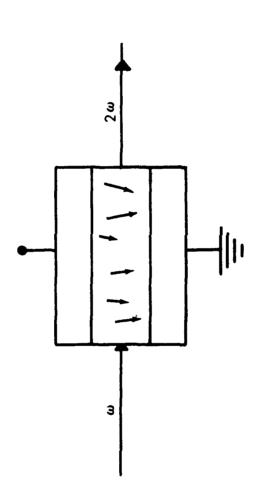
MATERIAL FORM: LARGE SINGLE CRYSTAL (mm to cm) ADVANTAGES: MEASURES TENSOR ELEMENTS OF χ^2 DISADVANTAGES: REQUIRES CRYSTAL POLISHING AND ORIENTATION,

KNOWLEDGE OF INDICES OF REFRACTION

Figure 17

SECOND HARMONIC GENERATION ELECTRIC FIELD INDUCED

(EFISH)



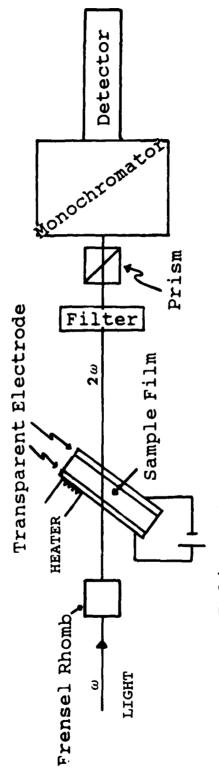
MATERIAL FORM: SOLUTION (LOW POLARITY SOLVENTS)

ADVANTAGES: OBTAIN MOLECULAR PROPERTIES, RELATIVE COMPARISONS POSSIBLE

DISADVANTAGES: MOLECULAR PROPERTIES ARE SUBJECT TO ENVIRONMENT

Figure 18

POLYMER POLING

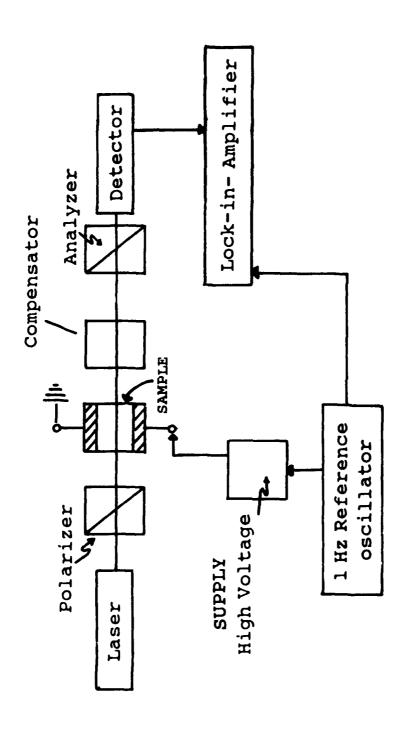


32

Poling Voltage

DISADVANTAGES: NOT A DIRECT MEASUREMENT FOR ELECTRO-OPTICS ADVANTAGES: REAL LIFE ENVIRONMENT, EASY SIGNAL DETECTION MATERIAL FORM: POLYMER SYSTEM

ELECTRO-OPTIC EFFECT



33

ADVANTAGES: DIRECT MEASUREMENT (in device form) MATERIAL FORM: POLYMER SYSTEMS, CRYSTALS LESS SENSITIVE THAN SHG **DISADVANTAGES:**

NOT AN IN-SITU TEST CRYSTALLOGRAPHIC ORIENTATION FOR CRYSTALS The nonresonant susceptibility contributions occur in spectral regions far from any optical absorption of the material, while resonant contributions occur at frequencies near or resonant with the material's optical absorptions. Resonance effects are usually measured at absorption band edges and can cause considerable enhancement of the nonlinear optical susceptibility through admixtures of excited state properties and contributions from excited state dynamics. For materials of interest in eye/sensor protection, the nonresonant effects are of greatest interest because they are responsible for broadband response with good transparency at ambient light levels.

Another important aspect of $\chi^{(3)}$ materials is the intensity dependent refractive index, n_2 . At high irradiance levels, a material's index of refraction can be described by

$$n = n_0 + n_2(I)$$
 (8)

where n_0 is the linear refractive index and n_2 is the intensity dependent refractive index. 9,11,29,110,111 At nonresonant optical frequencies, n_2 can arise from any of the mechanisms listed in the following table. 9,29,81,82,110

TABLE 4
MECHANISMS OF NONRESONANT SELF-INDUCED INDEX CHANGES

MECHANISM	n ₂ (esu)	(sec)
MOLECULAR-ORIENTATION KERR EFFECT MOLECULAR-REDISTRIBUTION (LIBRATIONS) NONLINEAR ELECTRONIC POLARIZABILITY ELECTROSTRICTION THERMAL EFFECTS	$ \begin{array}{r} 10^{-11} - 10^{-12} \\ 10^{-12} - 10^{-13} \\ 10^{-8} - 10^{-14} \\ 10^{-11} - 10^{-12} \\ 10^{-4} - 10^{-5} \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

Of these mechanisms, the nonlinear electronic polarizability is the most important for eye/sensor protection due to its fast response time. While the molecular-orientation Kerr effect (quadratic electric-field-induced-birefringence) is also fast, it suffers from a saturation effect at high light intensities due to the complete orientation of molecules. 110,112

There can also be a resonant contribution to n_2 when near a strong absorption frequency. At resonant or near resonant frequencies, some of the light is absorbed which causes a redistribution of the material's electronic energy levels. 8,10 , 29 , 110 This results in a change in the dispersion associated with the absorption band, a resonant enhanced intensity dependent index of refraction. Such an effect is in general not compatible with the broadband response required for

an eye/sensor protection device.

Of the characterization methods listed relow and diagrammed in the following pages (Figs. 21-25), only third harmonic generation does not depend on n_2 . 81,82,109,112-116 As before, the sample form and the type of information desired dictate the appropriate characterization method.

MATERIALS PROGRESS

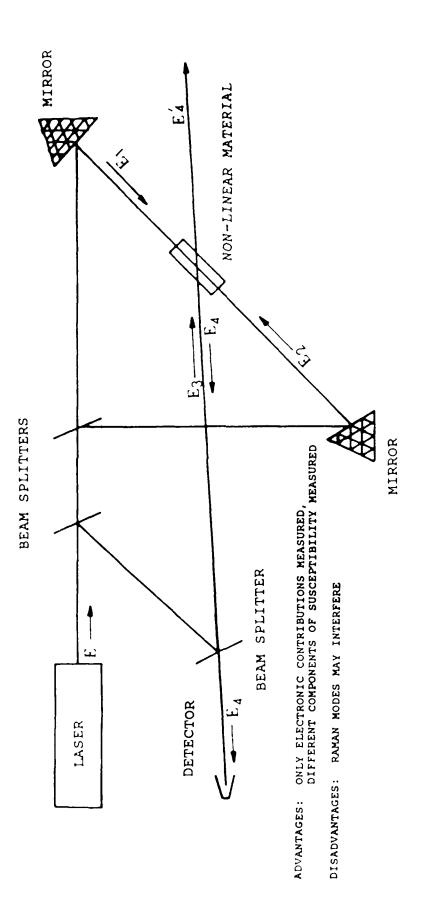
$\chi^{(2)}$ Materials

Most of the organic material development work has involved $\chi^{(2)}$ systems: organic crystals, guest/host type structures, liquid crystal side chain polymers and liquid crystal polymers. 8,14,17,19,21,37,38,40-75,100,117 Of these general types, the latter three are of greatest interest because of the difficulties associated with growing reproducible, high optical quality crystals and the accompanying processing problems. 12,118 Van der Waals crystals are formed by dipolar forces between molecules and so, good second-order molecules with their large dipole moments are difficult to assemble into a noncentrosymmetric bulk crystal. 12 Researchers are examining different approaches to crystal growth using forces stronger than van der Waals attractions such as hydrogen bonding and molecular salts. 17,41

Non-crystalline organic materials appear to be promising at this time: $\chi^{(2)}$ values on the order of 10^{-7} esu have been reported with response times on the order of microseconds. 14,37,38,96,98,100 The majority of work in this arena has focussed on guest/host type structures where the second-order molecule is a guest in a polymer host, e.g., an azo-dye in poly(methyl methacrylate). 12,64,93,176 One particularly interesting example of this type of system is the use of a crystalline copolymer of vinylidene fluoride and trifluoroethylene as the host and an aminoazo compound as the guest. 94 In this case, the host is a ferroelectric composite with electric fields of 10^6 V/cm permanently induced in the amorphous regions containing the guest molecules. 94 This should lead to saturation orientation of the guest molecules 57,94 and thereby a large $\chi^{(2)}$.

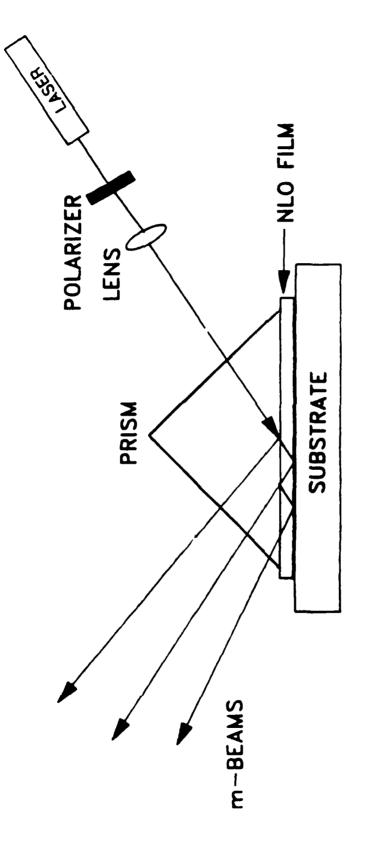
A significant amount of work has also been reported involving Langmuir-Blodgett films of highly polarizable molecules. 40,43,66,95,103-107

DEGENERATE FOUR WAVE MIXING



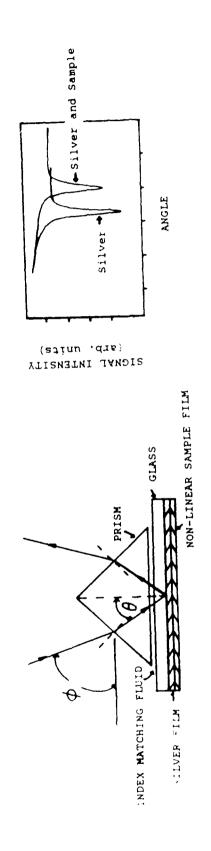
The term degenerate is E_1 and E_2 are known as the pump beams and E_3 is the probe beam. These three beams interact in the nonlinear medium to produce a phase-conjugate beam (E4) which Figure 21: A schematic diagram of the degenerate four wave mixing technique. propagates exactly opposite to the probe beam (see Fig. 31). The term applied to this technique if all of the beams have the same frequency.

M-LINE TECHNIQUE



an accurate index of refraction and film thickness can be obtained. Information (sign and magnitude) on n_2 and $\chi^{(3)}$ can be obtained by varying the laser intensity and monitoring changes in the m-line angles. By measuring the angles associated with the m-lines, the nonlinear optical film acts as a quasi-waveguide where leaky modes are excited. In this technique,

SURFACE PLASMON



Surface plasmons are electromagnetic waves which propagate along the metal are obtained and sample film. At a certain angle, the incident light couples to the interface as surface plasmon and signal intensity drops. Knowing this angle, it is possible to intensity and this intensity dependence gives the magnitude of n_2 and thereby $\chi(3)$ A particular advantage to this technique is that the sign of n_2 and $\chi(3)$ are obtain obtain information on the dielectric constant and the index of refraction of the In nonlinear optical materials, the coupling angle depends on the ligh, Figure 23: sample.

OPTICAL KERR EFFECT

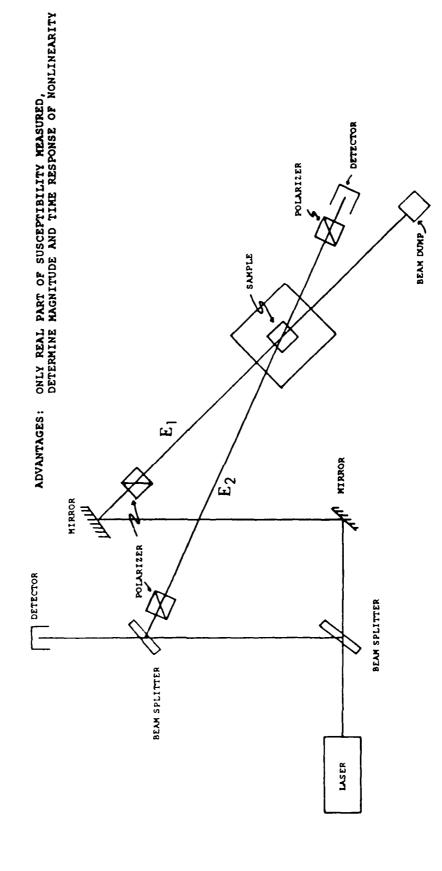
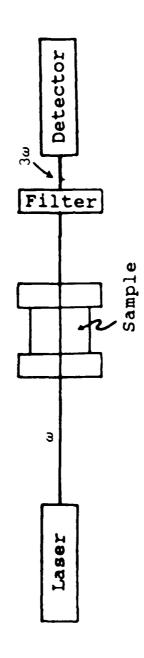


Figure 24: In this characterization technique, a pump beam (E_1) induces a birefringence in the nonlinear optical material. This induced birefringence alters the polarization of the probe beam (E_2) . The pump and probe beams are oriented at 45 degrees so that the probe beam components experience different indices of refraction.

THIRD HARMONIC GENERATION



ADVANTAGES: SENSITIVE SCREENING TECHNIQUE, NONRESONANT MEASUREMENT

DISADVANTAGES: INDIRECT MEASUREMENT OF SUSCEPTIBILITY OF INTEREST

Figure 25

However, probably the most promising area of organic material development involves liquid crystal side chain and liquid crystal main chain polymers. 8, 14, 37, 38, 57, 99, 100, 117, 119-121 Liquid crystal side chain polymers are formed by attaching mesogenic units to polymer backbones using spacer groups to decouple motion of the side chain from the backbone (See Fig. 26). 41, 119-121 An electric field is used to orient the side chains. $\chi^{(2)}$ values on the order of 10^{-9} esu have been reported with response times on the order of microseconds for these kinds of materials. 14,37,38,96,98 preliminary results showing GHz modulation (nanosecond response times) have also recently been reported, but not published. 14,96,98

On the other hand, main chain liquid crystal polymers 119 (also known as polar polymers) have demonstrated substantially enhanced second-order effects as compared to their monomers. 57 This enhancement is theorized to arise from the structural ordering of the monomers. Further enhancement may be possible by orienting the polymer chains themselves (see the discussion in Proposed Future Research Efforts).

A major focus of future $\chi^{(2)}$ research will be to develop materials with $\chi^{(2)}$ oriented parallel to the material surface rather than perpendicular. 14 , 37 , 38 , 98 Such a development would allow for greater usable surface areas and possibly thinner films than are currently available. Both are advances that would make meeting the optical requirements for eye/sensor protection devices more realistically attainable.

An extensive compilation of $\chi^{(2)}$ materials and their properties can be found in reference 19.

$\chi^{(3)}$ Materials

Although the origin of third order effects is not fully understood, progress has been made in developing materials with useful $\chi^{(3)}$ properties. 9-11, 16, 18, 20, 37, 38, 85, 89, 122-141 Organic $\chi^{(3)}$ materials can be somewhat arbitrarily divided into four main classes: fused ring polymers, long chain unsaturated polymers, organometallic polymers and miscellaneous. Appendix A contains a brief compilation of reported $\chi^{(3)}$ materials for each of these areas and an additional area, inorganics, included for comparison.

The largest reported $\chi^{(3)}$ values are for long chain unsaturated polymers, specifically the poly(diacetylene) (PDA) materials, which have received extensive attention. 9, 16, 34, 111, 122-139 A wide variety of substituent groups to the main chain have been studied, but overall, PDA materials are highly absorbing in the visible region of the spectrum and the reported values of $\chi^{(3)}$ are resonant-enhanced; undesirable qualities for eye/sensor protection. However, steady advances in the magnitude of the third-order effect have

LIQUID CRYSTAL SIDE CHAIN POLYMERS

Figure 26: A schematic diagram of a liquid crystal side chain polymer.

been reported. 9, 34, 111, 123, 131, 132

Recent investigations of ladder polymers and rigid-rod polymers have reported nonresonant $\chi^{(3)}$ values on the order of 10^{-9} esu and are a promising new area of research. 9,10,13,37,38,44,78-80,140-142 These large nonlinear effects are believed to arise from increased π orbital overlap, as compared to open chain polymers. 13,37,38,76,78-80 Current research efforts are focussing on the effects of substituent groups and heteroatom substitution, which preliminary results suggest may dramatically increase the optical nonlinearity. 9,37,38,78,80,81,82,89

An exciting new area in organic $\chi^{(3)}$ material development is organometallics. $^{143-145}$ The incorporation of inorganic components into organic polymer systems has produced $\chi^{(3)}$ values on the order of 10^{-10} esu. $^{143-145}$ Investigations into the effects of different inorganic components in these materials are currently underway. $^{143-145}$ Inorganic/organic guest/host systems have also shown third-order effects but the magnitude is not clear.

Among the miscellaneous $\chi^{(3)}$ materials, small metal particles in colloidal suspensions, 146 azo dye attached copolymers 147 and dye doped glasses 148, 149 have all exhibited rather large $\chi^{(3)}$ and n₂ values.

Future research efforts on organic $\chi^{(3)}$ materials are being directed at developing a fuller understanding of the origin of the third-order effect via small systematic changes on the molecular level, i.e., trial and error. 37,38,81,82 Concomitantly, material development will occur. The other major research thrust will be in developing materials with better optical properties as well as improved mechanical and processing properties. 14,37,38 These latter properties are critical to the development of useful protection devices.

DEVICE CONCEPTS

Material Capabilities

In this section generic eye/sensor protection devices that make use of nonlinear optical materials are described. It is generally agreed that $\chi^{(2)}$ materials have now developed to the point where they can compete with their inorganic analogs in the areas of optical communication and computing devices ($\chi^{(2)} \sim 10^{-7} \text{ esu}$). 37 , 38 , 45 , 88 However, with respect to eye/sensor protection, devices based on $\chi^{(2)}$ materials generally involve the linear electro-optic effect or frustrated internal reflection and are relatively slow to respond (msec to nanosecond time scale). 14 , 64 , 88 , 93 , 117 , 150 While such a response time may be adequate for protection against CW laser irradiation, it is not adequate for pulsed laser irradiation protection. In addition, electro-optic devices usually require

high voltage power sources; they are not passive devices. Therefore, most recent roposals for eye/sensor protection devices employ designs based on electronic polarizable $\chi^{(3)}$ materials (see Table 4).

State-of-the-art third-order electronic materials have $\chi^{(3)}$ s that are on the order of 10^{-9} esu. 14, 37, 38, 78, 79, 81, 82, 160 If improvements in the optical quality (reduced scattering and absorption) of these materials can be made, they may find application in optical wave guide devices. However, before they find broad device applications, $\chi^{(3)}$ must be increased by at least two orders of magnitude. 14, 37, 38

Device Designs

In the following section and figures, device designs based on $\chi^{(2)}$ and $\chi^{(3)}$ materials are described.

The first concept (Fig. 27) involves the linear electrooptic effect. This effect is associated with $\chi^{(2)}$ materials that are placed in an electric field. The applied field causes the material to become anisotropic and birefringent. The proposed eye/sensor protection device places the material between crossed polarizers. (A nonlinear optical solution/liquid would be housed in a material cell located between the crossed polarizers.) In the absence of an applied field, the crossed polarizers completely attenuate any incident light. Applying an electric field causes the nonlinear material to rotate the plane polarized light coming through the incident polarizer allowing some light to pass through the exiting polarizer. The maximum throughput is limited to 50% because the incident light must first be polarized and this attenuation is too great for eye protection systems. In addition, an adequate response time has not been demonstrated for these materials. For guest/host materials, the response time is on the order of microseconds (nanosecond response times have been reported but not published). 98,194 For liquid or solution samples, the effect can be fast for small molecules, on the order of tens of nanoseconds, but as the size of the active molecule increases so does the response time. Additionally, the response time for these types of devices will depend on overcoming the difficulties associated with generating fast electronic pulses in the kilovolt range.

Liquid crystals and ferroelectric liquid crystals have shown promising results when incorporated into linear electro-optic devices, $^{151-158}$ but suffer from the same disadvantages listed above.

LINEAR ELECTRO-OPTIC DEVICE

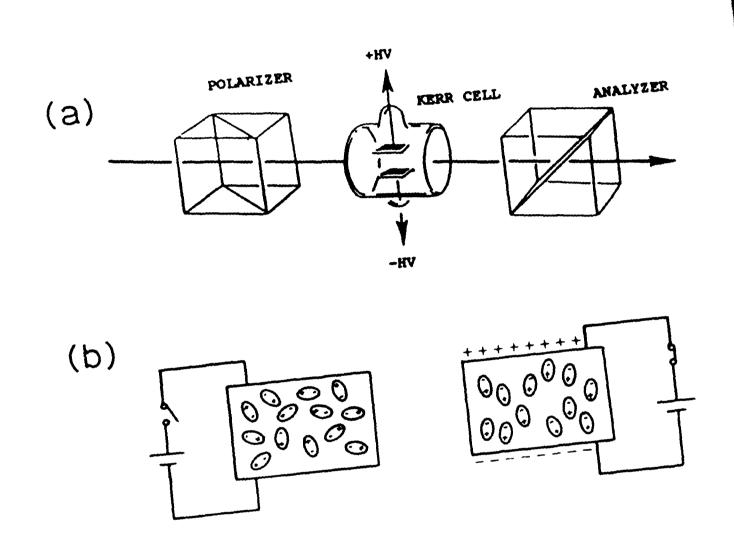


Figure 27: Linear Electro-Optic Device: (a) diagrams the optical train and (b) indicates how the device works. The ovals in (b) represent polar molecules which change from a random orientation to an aligned one when an electric field is applied thereby inducing a birefringence which rotates the plane of polarization of the incident light.

As diagrammed in Fig. 28, a device similar to the linear electro-optic one described above can be designed making use of the optical Kerr effect. For the system diagrammed, again the response time depends on the rate of reorientation of the active molecules.

A slight variation in this theme is the liquid crystal composite. In this device, small droplets of liquid crystals are dispersed in a polymeric host. The application of an electric field causes the liquid crystals in the droplets to align making the material transparent. This device requires the refractive indices of the polymeric host and the oriented liquid crystal to match. As the electric field is reduced, the liquid crystals assume a more random orientation and a refractive index mismatch occurs resulting in increased scattering - the material becomes a milky white color. The process is reversible and easily adapted to device design. However, the response time of the device is on the order of milliseconds, too slow to protect against pulsed lasers. 195 similar device using microdroplets of liquid crystals and depending on the optical Kerr effect has also been reported. 196 The response time is on the order of 50 microseconds for this system. 196)

A device similar to the liquid crystal composite has been proposed that would use a dispersion of $\chi^{(3)}$ microparticles in a polymeric host (Fig. 29). The design principle is to make use of the intensity dependent refractive index, n_2 . At low light irradiances, the index matched particles and host will let the light pass through unaffected. However, at high irradiances, the index of refraction of the nonlinear optical material changes, creating an index mismatch and thereby scattering the incoming light. The advantages to this type of device are that is passive, ie., powered by the light itself, it is fast enough to protect against pulsed laser threats if electronic polarizable $\chi^{(3)}$ materials (see Table 4) are used and that the device is normally optically transparent.

Another $\chi^{(3)}$ material device concept, based on four wave mixing, is diagrammed in Fig. 30. In this type of device, two counterpropagating lasers (beams 1 and 2) setup a phase grating in the nonlinear optical material that rejects a high intensity input laser beam (beam 3) while letting a low intensity input beam pass through unaffected. These counterpropagating beams can be at the same frequency as the input beam (degenerate four wave mixing) or at a different frequency (nondegenerate four Most device designs employ a permanent set of wave mixing). crossed laser beams, but using a beam splitter as diagrammed, the incident beam can be used to form these beams. rejected beam (beam 4) is conjugate to the input beam which is why this method is sometimes referred to as phase conjugation. (By phase conjugation, we mean that the rejected beam has the same phase as the input beam but travels in exactly the

KERR CELL

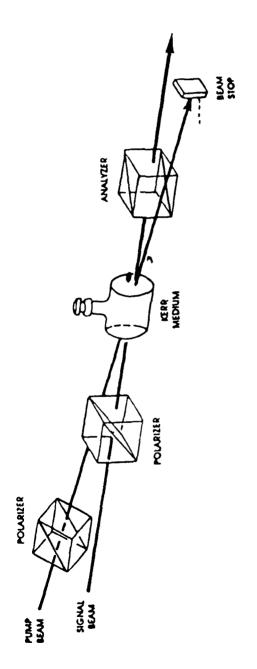


Figure 28: The Optical Kerr Effect Device uses optical electric-field induced birefringence. The basic optical train remains the same as in the Linear Electro-Optic Device.

POWER LIMITER: X 3 COMPOSITE

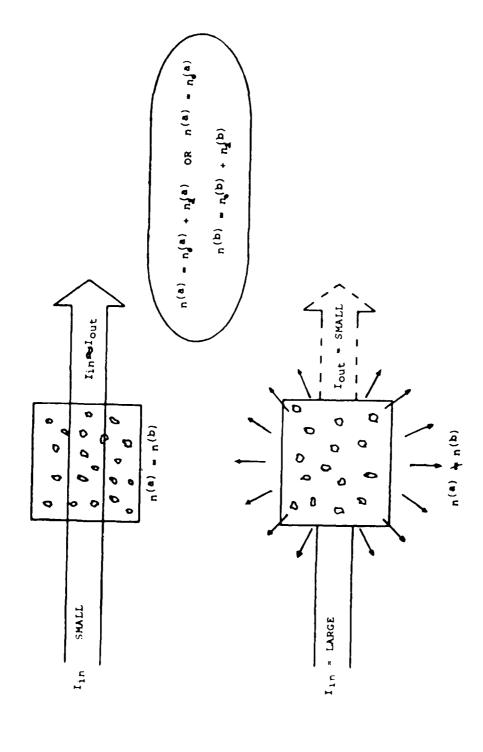


Figure 29: Diagrammed is a power limiter device concept based on third order materials. At low input intensity, the light intensity a refractive index mismatch is formed via no and the input beam is scattered. In this type of device only one However, at high material must be optically nonlinear. passes through virtually unaffected.

FOUR WAVE MIXING DEVICES

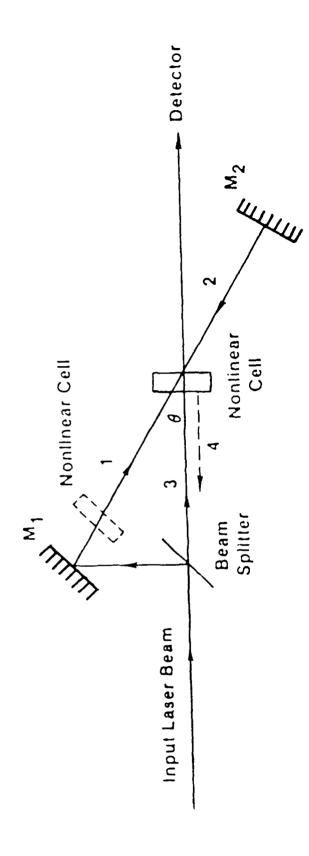


Figure 30: A schematic diagram of a four wave mixing device where the input beam (3) is used to form the pump beams (1 and 2). See the text for a more detailed description of the device operation.

opposite direction, a sort of time reversal symmetry. See Fig. 31.) 28 , 161 This device requires the use of electronic $\chi^{(3)}$ materials (Table 4) to protect against pulsed lasers.

Another grating type device suggested for use in eye/sensor protection uses photorefractive materials. ¹⁶² In these materials, a weak probe beam and a strong incident beam are crossed setting up an intensity distribution which in turn results in a space charge density distribution as diagrammed in Fig. 32. The resulting space charge electric field and index modulation are out of phase with respect to the intensity distribution resulting in a phase grating. This type of effect is limited by the ability of charges to migrate and define the space charge density. ¹⁶³, ¹⁶⁴ Literature reports suggest a fundamental response time limit on the order of picoseconds (10⁻¹² sec). ¹⁶³, ¹⁶⁴ The only materials observed to exhibit this effect thus far are certain inorganic crystals. The possibility of such effects arising in organometallic and metal doped polymeric materials has been proposed.

One final device concept involves the intensity dependent refractive index, n₂. In these beam bending devices, diagrammed in Fig. 33, high intensity light alters the refractive index of the nonlinear optical material, deflecting the beam out of the normal optical path. While such devices are simple in concept, they are difficult to put into practice. This is because a high intensity symmetric beam will experience a symmetric phase shift and so will not deflect out of the optic path. ¹⁶⁵ A variety of methods for imparting an asymmetric profile to the input beam have been suggested, many making use of grating type structures as diagrammed in Fig. 33.

OPTICAL PHASE CONJUGATION

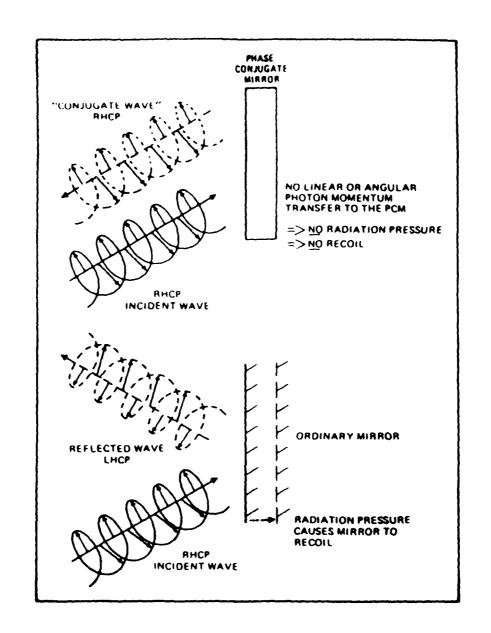
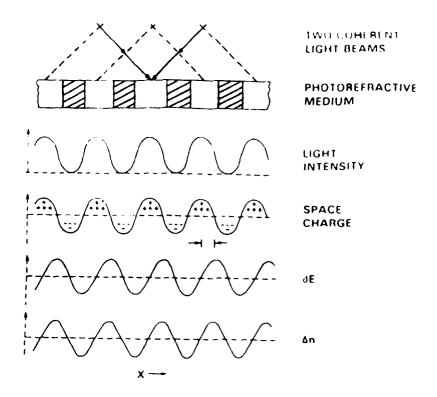


Figure 31: The concept of phase conjugation is illustrated using left and right handed circularly polarized light (LHCP and RHCP, respectively) and a phase conjugate (top of figure) and ordinary mirror (bottom of figure). This figure was adapted from Ref. 161.

PHOTOREFRACTIVE DEVICES



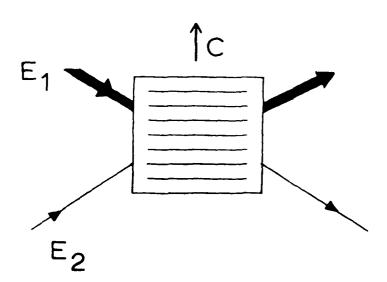


Figure 32: The upper half of the figure diagrams the evolution of the photorefractive material response. Diagrammed in the lower half of the figure is a configuration which could be used for eye/sensor protection. At low irradiance levels, E_{\downarrow} would continue unhindered through the crystal. However, at high irradiances, E_{\downarrow} would be deflected out of the optical path.

eye damage thresholds, W_e : 1

* For pulse durations of 1 - 18 ns: $W_e = 0.5 \, \mu \text{J/cm}^2$ * For longer pulse durations, up to 10 se.s: $W_e = 1.8 \, \text{t}^{3/4} \, \text{mJ/cm}^2$ (t in seconds)

As an example, using the forementioned damage thresholds and a value of 100 mW/cm^2 for the output of the sun, 2 an eye protection device must attenuate the light by a factor equivalent to 1.5 optical density units (ODU) (a transmission reduction of 97%) when directed at the sun.

PROTECTION STRATEGIES

Any successful eye/sensor protection device must interact with and attenuate the laser light before it reaches the detector system. The interaction of light with matter is usually classified in one of three categories: absorption, dispersion or scattering. Absorption can be an effective protection strategy and representative examples of absorption devices under investigation include particle suspension, chalcogenide, VO2, Ge, and two-photon absorption activated power limiters. However, such devices often have reduced transparency in the visible spectral region or unacceptable response times. Therefore, much of the recent research into eye/sensor protection has focussed on using dispersion or scattering to redirect the light and this is where nonlinear optical materials have the greatest potential for impact in the near term: nonlinear optical materials can have unique index of refraction properties and fast response times.

ORGANIC NONLINEAR OPTICAL MATERIALS

Nonlinear optical materials have been known and studied for over two decades with most research efforts being successfully directed at inorganic materials, 5,25,26 in particular, inorganic crystals 27, glasses 28,29 and semiconductors. 30-32 The most familiar example of inorganic nonlinear optical materials are crystals such as potassium dihydrogen phosphate (KDP) and lithium niobate (LiNbO3). However, more recently, interest has focussed on such inorganic materials as tungsten bronze crystals. 33 With the recent emphasis on optical computing and communication, a need for nonlinear optical materials with better mechanical processing and physical properties than available in typical inorganic nonlinear optical materials has become apparent and researchers have turned to examine organic polymeric materials .9,14,17-21,34-39 It is now generally agreed that organic materials have the potential for nonlinear optical effects which are orders of magnitude better than currently used inorganic materials. 5, 6, 12, 14, 17-21, 34, 37, 38, 40-45 is based on the origin of the nonlinear optical effect in organic materials: the easily polarized molecular electric fields. 7,10,14,15 Extensive research is underway on the development of nonlinear optical organic materials and a

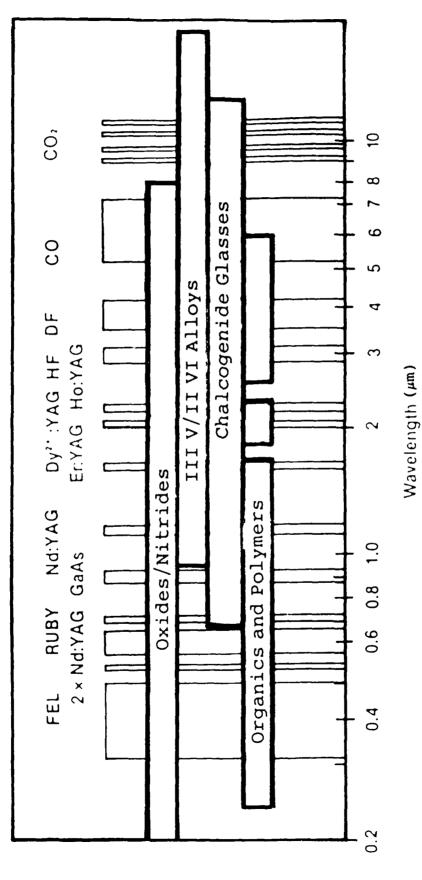


Figure 6: A graphic representation of various lasers available in modern laboratories and the spectral transmission windows of potential laser hardening materials.

BEAM BENDING DEVICES

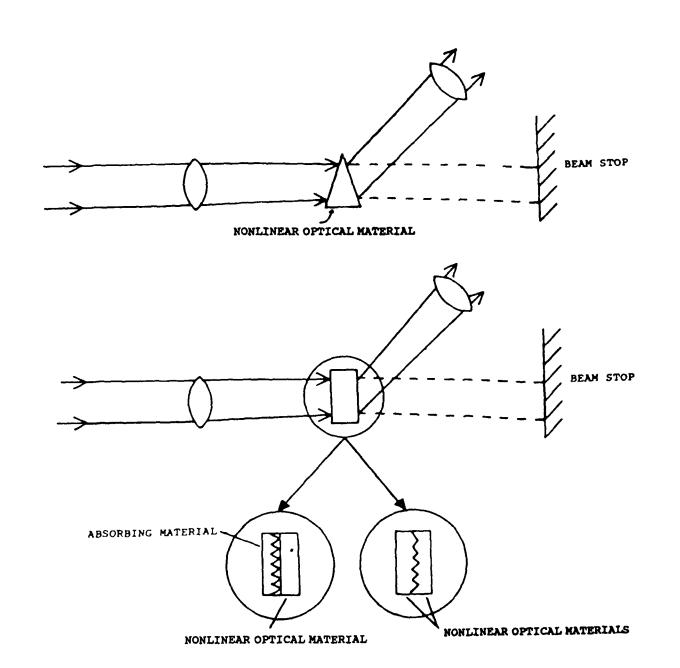


Figure 33: An illustration of the beam bending device concept.

PROPOSED FUTURE RESEARCH EFFORTS

In reviewing research efforts to develop organic nonlinear optical materials for eye/sensor protection, several novel ideas have surfaced which the authors would like to propose.

The first idea involves using stretched copolymer films to assist in enhancing nonlinear optical effects in materials. Although extensive work has been reported on copolymer systems, polymer film alignment by stretching 13,36 has not received much attention. The technology for stretching films is well developed; this is the way Polaroid filters and lenses are prepared. The following figure (Fig. 34) is a schematic diagram of how the process would help to increase molecular order in the material and thereby increase the magnitude of the nonlinear optical effect.

Another idea that has been proposed by other researchers and which may have great potential, is organic superlattices. In general, organic superlattices can be envisioned as structures with an alternating composition on a molecular scale. This alternating composition is repeated in only one direction so that the electrons are confined along a chain. The following diagrams (Fig. 35 and 36) indicate how these organic systems would imitate the more familiar semiconductor superlattices, and give an idea of the type of control that may be available via substituent groups.

Production of these types of materials via copolymer synthesis and Langmuir-Blodgett film deposition has been suggested. These are both areas of established expertise in the Polymeric Materials Branch at NRL.

Finally, little information was uncovered concerning investigations into the potential of inorganic polymer systems for use in eye and sensor protection. Inorganic polymers, such as the linear polyphosphazenes and polythiazyl (Fig. 37), can exhibit extensive conjugation, a necessary condition for enhanced nonlinear optical behavior, and enhanced ancillary properties. For example, silicon based polymer systems should have enhanced thermal damage thresholds. Additional theoretical and experimental investigations into the potential of polymer systems like those described above should be considered.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

One of us (MEB) was an ONT Postdoctoral Fellow during part of this work and would like to thank both the Office of Naval Technology and the American Society for Engineering Education. We would also like to thank Dr. Filbert J. Bartoli Jr., Optical Sciences Division, Naval Research Laboratory for his helpful discussions and comments.

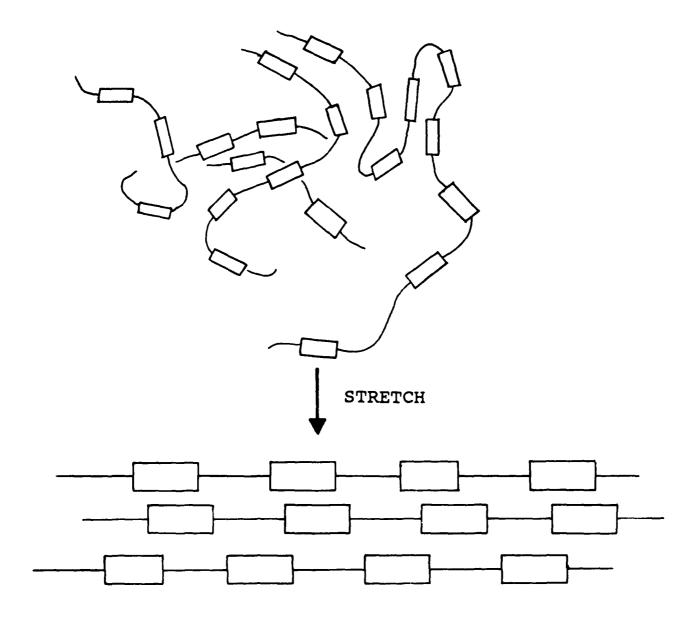


Figure 34: The enhancement in the molecular packing, and thus the nonlinear optical effect, of a copolymer film via stretching is diagramed. The rectangles represent the nonlinear optical units or blocks in the copolymer.

ORGANIC SUPERLATTICES

ORDERED STRUCTURES

LANGMUIR-BLODGETT FILMS

ALTERNATE COPOLYMERS

BLOCK COPOLYMERS

 $[-A-B-A-B-A-B-A-B]_n$

 $[-A-A-B-B-B-A-A-A-B-B-B-]_n$

Figure 35: Schematic diagrams of possible organic superlattice structures. The As and Bs represent different types of monomers, the basic building blocks of polymers.

ORGANIC SUPERLATTICES

BLOCK COPOLYMERS

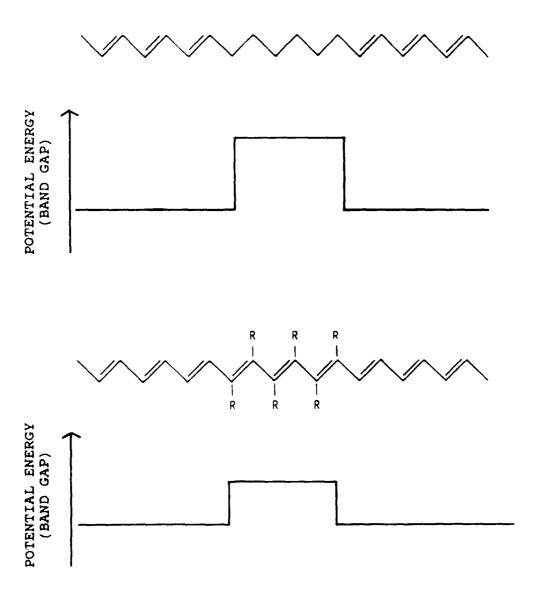


Figure 36: An example of how the properties of organic superlattices, using block copolymers, might be modified for specific applications.

$$(A) \qquad + (N = P + 1)$$

(B)
$$S^{N}S^{N}$$

Figure 37: Two inorganic polymers (a) linear polyphosphazene and (b) polythiazyl demonstrating extensive π conjugation, a requirement for nonlinear optical behavior, are shown.

APPENDIX A: LISTING OF X3 MATERIALS

THE FOLLOWING LIST OF ORGANIC AND INORGANIC χ^3 MATERIALS IS NOT AN EXHAUSTIVE COMPILATION OF REPORTED RESULTS. RATHER, IT IS AN ATTEMPT TO DEMONSTRATE THE WIDE VARIETY OF MATERIALS THAT HAVE OR ARE BEING EXAMINED AND THE MAGNITUDE OF THEIR RESPECTIVE NONLINEAR OPTICAL EFFECTS.

THE FOLLOWING ABBREVIATIONS ARE USED FOR MATERIAL NAMES:

POLY (P-PHENTLENE -2, -6 BENZOBISOXAZOLE)
POLY (P-PHENTLENE -2, -6 BENZOBISOXAZOLE)
POLY (P-PHENTLENE BENZOBISDIAZOLE)
POLY (S-PHENTLENE BENZOBISBENZINIDAZO(2, 1-8:1', 2'-J)BENZO(LMN)PHENANTHROLINE-2, 13-DIYL)
POLY (6, P-DINTENALOLE)
POLY (1, 6-DINTENALORE)
POLY (1, 6-DINTENALOLE)
POLY (1, 6-DINTENALOLE)
POLY (1, 6-DINTENALOLE)
POLY (1, 11M-BIS(1, 4)DAAZINO(3, 2-8:3', 2'-M)TRIPHENODIOXAZINE-3, 12-DIYL-2, 11-DIYLIDENE-11, 12-BIS(METHYLIDINE))
POLY (2, 1-BIS(1, 4)TRIAZINO(3, 2-8:3', 2'-M)TRIPHENODITHIAZINE-3, 12-DIYL-2, 11-DIYLIDENE-11, 12-BIS(METHYLIDINE))
POLY (2, 5-BIS(TRIFLUOROMETHYL)PHENYLDIACETYLENE) N-(-P-KTHOXYBENTIDENE)-P-BUTYLANILINE
POLY (P-PHYLIENBENZOBISTHIAZOLE)
4-BUTOXYCARBONYLAFTHYLIBETHANE
POLY (BIS (P-TOLLUNE SULFONATE))
PARADIMETHYLAMINO-B-NITROSTYRENE
D PARADIMETHYLAMINO-L PHENYL, 4-NITROBUTADIENE
RETHYLAMITROANILINE
DIMETHYLSULFOXIDE
POLY (P-PHENYLENE VINYLENE)
FOLY (P-PHENYLENE VINYLENE)
POLY (P-PHENYLENE VINYLENE)
POLY DIACETYLENE POLY (METHYL METHACRYLATE)

THE FOLLOWING ABBREVIATIONS ARE USED IN DESCRIBING THE MATERIAL/MOLECULAR FORM:

LB LANGWUIR/BLODGETT FILM
SOLN SOLUTION
LIQU LIQUID
MLTN MOLTEN
LC LIQUID CRYSTAL
CRYS CRYSTAL
PLAT CRYSTAL
PLAT CRYSTAL
MONO MONOMER
POLY POLYMER

THE FOLLOWING ABBREVIATIONS ARE USED IN DESCRIBING THE EXPERIMENTAL METHOD FOR DETERMINING THE NONLINEAR OPTICAL EFFECT:

DEWM DEGENERATE FOUR WAVE MIXING
THG THIRD HARMONIC GENERATION
RWG REFLECTION WAVEGUIDE
OXE OPTICAL KERR EFFECT
EFISH STURATION INTENSITY
SATURATION INTENSITY
SURFACE PLASMON
ETAL NONLINEAR ETALON EXPERIMENT

NOTIES

- (1) IN THE COLUMN DESCRIBING THE MAGNITUDE OF THE χ^3 EFFECT, QUANTITIES ENCLOSED IN PARENETHESES ARE MOLECULAR HYPERPOLARIZABILITIES, γ . UNLESS OTHERWISE INDICATED, THE REPORTED VALUE IS AN EXPERIMENTAL MEASUREMENT.
- (2) THE COLUMN LABELED TIME REFERS TO THE RESPONSE TIME OF THE NONLINEAR OPTICAL MATERIAL.
- (3) DATA OBTAINED FROM NON-REFEREED SOURCES SUCH AS ORAL PRESENTATIONS AND CONFERENCE LECTURE NOTES ARE INDICATED IN THE REFERENCE COLUMN USING A SUPERSCRIPT # .

CLASS: BOND ALTERNATION (LADDER AND RIGID ROD)

	YEAR	1988 1988	1988 1988	1988 1988	1988 1988	1988 1988	1968 1988	1986 1986 1988 1988
SINCES	REF#	883	388	193 80	37	37 80	37 80	10 13 37 187
REFERENCES	AUTHOR	DALTON DALTON #	DALTON T	DALTON *	ULRICH [‡] DALTON [‡]	ULRICH [†] DALTON [†]	ULRICH [‡] DALTON [∓]	GARITO RAO ULRICH* DOMASH*
	METHOD	A S	E A	DFWM				THG
	TIME	(g S	S ದ				<
	Res/NonRes	ç	×	æ		CALCULATED		N. N. N.
AL EFFECT) (mm)	6	70.0	0.53		VICUI		1.90
NONLINEAR OPTICAL EFFECT	or (γ) $n_2 (cm^2/MW)$ (esu)					პ¯ ~_	_	5E-7
NON	() ()							E-12
	x^3 or (es	3E-10 2.8E-9	2.8E-10 1.3E-9	7E-10 1.1E-9	5E-10	1E-7	2E-13	50-100E-12 9E-12 1E-10
	FORM x ³ or		2.8E-1 1.3E-9	TF 7E-10	5E-10	1E-7	2E-13	TF 50-1001
MOLECULE/MATERIAL	۳× ۲	4 Ø		75	X=CH;PRISTINE # 5E-10	X=CH;BIPOLARON	X=CH; PROTONATED # 2E-13	

CLASS: BOND ALTERNATING (LADDER AND RIGID ROD)

	YEAR	1988		1986 1988	1988 1988 1989	1989
NCES	REF#	81		10	80 1 93 197	197
REFERENCES	АОТНОВ	PRASAD*		GARITO STAMANOFF	DALTON [‡] DALTON KAFAFI [‡]	* KAFAFI
	метнор	DFWM		ТНС	DFWM DFWM	DFWM
	TIME				8 8	s,
	Res/NonRes	Ä		N N RN	NEAR R R NEAR R	ž.
L EFFECT) (Jen)	0.63		1.90	0.53	1.06
NONLINEAR OPTICAL EFFECT	$n_2 (cm^2/MW)$					
N.	x^3 or (γ) (esu)	2.5E-11		8E-13 7E-13	2E-9 7E-11	± 8-11
	FORM			FF	- , c	
MOLECULE/MATERIAL	STRUCTURE		N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N	HN		
	NAME	PBO	PDIAB	PBI	ВВГ	888

CLASS: LONG CHAIN UNSATURATED

	YEAR		1985 1985 1985 1976	1980 1984 1988 1988	1984 1976 1976 1976	1986 1986 1987 1987	1988 1988 1988 1988	1988 1988 1988 1988 1988
Second	REF# Y		122 133 133 125 125		136 125 125 125	16 16 137 137	131	131111111111111111111111111111111111111
REFERENCES	AUTHOR		CARTER CARTER CARTER SAUTERET SAUTERET	HERMANN CARTER NAKANISHI PRASAD*	CARTER SAUTERET SAUTERET SAUTERET	RAO RAO HO HO	NAKANISHI NAKANISHI NAKANISHI NAKANISHI NAKANISHI	NAKANISHI NAKANISHI NAKANISHI NAKANISHI NAKANISHI
	METHOD		DFWM DFWM THG	ETAL RWG DFWM	RWG THG THG	DFWM DFWM OKE		
·	TIME		1ps (6p (6ps	<3ps		<pre></pre>		
	Res/NonRes		er ar ar ar	an a	NR near R near R NR	R(?) R(?) R NR		
CAL EFFECT	(mg) ×		0.70 0.65 0.70 2.62	1.9 >0.70 1.94	>0.70 1.89 1.89 2.62	0.58k0.61 0.58k0.61 0.53 1.06	1.83 1.94 1.94 1.88	1.83 1.94 1.94 1.94 1.88
NONLINEAR OPTICAL EFFECT	n ₂ (cm ² /MW)		3E-6 1.8E-6	1E-6	1E-6	1E-6		
	$\chi^3 \text{ or } (\gamma)$ (esu)		9E-9 5E-10 1.6E-10 8.5E-10	3E-9 1.1E-11 1E-9	1.2E-13 7.5E-11 3.7E-11	48-10 2.5E-11 3E-10 3E-9	2.46-11 3.76-11 2.66-11 2.46-11 3.56-11	2.8E-10 2.6E-10 1.3E-10 1.5E-10 3.2E-10
	FORM		TF PLAT PLAT CRYS	_	PLAT MONO POLY POLY	TF RED TF YLW TE/PMMA TE/PMMA	(1.09 LTF (0.98 LTF (1.09 LTF (0.98 LTF (1.09 LTF	(0.07 LTF (0.05 LTF (0.07 LTF (0.05 LTF (0.07 LTF
MOLECULE/MATERIAL	IE STRUCTURE	POLYDIACETYLENE (RC-CEC-C')	PD A-PTS : R=R'=CH ₂ OSO ₂ C ₆ H ₆ CH ₃	COMPOSITE	PDA-TCDU: R=R'=(CH ₂) _A OCONHC ₆ H ₅	PDA-4BCMU: R=R'=(CH ₂) ₄ CCONHCH ₂ COOC ₄ H ₉ TF YLW COMPOSITE/PMMA COMPOSITE/PMMA	POLY-DFIRP: CF3 (1.05) R=R'= (0.96) (1.05) (1.06) (1.06)	POLY-BIFP: F (0.07) R=R'= (0.05) F (0.05) F (0.05)
	NAME	<u>P</u> 0	PDA		PD#	PD/ R={	PO	<u>8</u>

CLASS: LONG CHAIN UNSATURATED

	YEAR	 	1985 1985	1987 1987 1987	1987 1987 1987 1987	1987 1987	1988	1988	1988	1988 1989 1989	1988	1988	
VCES	REF#		111	£ & &	######################################	**************************************	188	190	190	198	82	189	_
REFERENCES	AUTHOR		CARTER CARTER	KAJZAR KAJZAR KAJZAR	KAJZAR KAJZAR KAJZAR KAJZAR	KAJZAR KAJZAR	KARASZ	PBASAD	PRASAD	PRASAD SHIRK® SHIRK®	PRASAD [₹]	EGBERT	
	METHOD		SP	THC THC	2	1HC	DFWM	DFW	DFWM	DFWM DFWM DFWM	DFWM	ТНС	
	TIME						sd	Sd	sd	ps ps	bs		-
	Res/NonRes		R NR	& & & (x & & & (æ æ		œ	æ	α £ £	K	œ	•
CAL EFFECT	(mrt) v		0.67-0.70	1.064	1.064 1.907 1.064	1.35	09.0	09.0	09.0	0.60 1.06 1.06	09.0	1.39	•
NONLINEAR OPTICAL EFFECT	$n_2 (cm^2/MW)$		1E-4 1E-6	1E-10			5E-7						
	x^3 or (τ) (esu)			3.4E-11 1.5E-10 2.2E-10	96-12 1.96-11 3.46-11 46-11	1.2E-9 1.3E-9	1E-10	38-9	~1E-9	~1E-9 3E-11 2E-11	1E-9	5E-12	•
	FORM		LB LB CRYS	LB RED LB RED LB RED	LB BLU LB BLU LB BLU TRANS	TRANS	TF	8 1	EJ.	LB 13 SOLN	TF&LB	87	
MOLECULE/MATERIAL	STRUCTURE	$\begin{pmatrix} & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & $	R=CH ₁ (CH ₂) _{1,5} R'=(CH ₂) ₈ CGGH	R'=(CH ₂) ₈ COOCd			[z x	CHOT	Polythiophene	M.C. O.K.)=(2
•	NAME	PDA					VAA	H2Pc	NiPc	CuPc PbPc PtPc	Polyt	TCNQ	

CLASS: LONG CHAIN UNSATURATED

	YEAR	1977	1977	1977	1977	1977	1977	1977
REFERENCES	REF#	75	75	75	75	75	75	75
REFI	AUTHOR	OUDAR	OUDAR	OUDAR	OUDAR	OUDAR	OUDAR	OUDAR
	METHOD	FWM	FWM	EFISH	EFISH	ЕГІЅН	EFISH	ЕГІЅН
	TIME							
	Res/NonRes							
AL EFFECT	(EB)	1.06	1.06	1.06	1.06	1.06	1.06	1.06
NONLINEAR OPTICAL EFFECT	$n_2 (cm^2/MW)$							
ON C	(α) or (α)	(1.7E-35)	(4.8E-35)	(7.5E-34)	(2E-34)	(4.7E-34)	(2.7E-35)	(6.9E-34)
	FORM	n o r	SOLN	SOLN	SOLN	SOLN	SOLN	SOLN
MOLECULE/MATERIAL	NAME	cis-STILBENE	trans-STILBENE/C ₆ H ₆	4-NITROSTILBENE/C ₆ H ₆ O ₂ N C	4-AMINOSTILBENE/C ₆ H ₆ H ₂ N	4-DIMETHYLAMINOSTILBENE/C, H ₆ (CH ₃) ₂ N (4-CHLOROSTILBENE/C, H,	4-CHLORO-4'-NITROSTILBENE/CHC1 ₃

CLASS: LONG CHAIN UNSATURATED

	YEAR	1977	1977	1977	1977	1977	1986 1986 1980	1986
REFERENCES	REF#	75	75	75	75	75	153 153 159	153
REFE	AUTHOR	OUDAR	OUDAR	OUDAR	OUDAR	OUDAR	WONG WONG FEKETE	WONG
	METHOD	EFISH	EFISH	EFISH	EFISH	EFISH	THG THG DFWM	THG
	TIME						r S	
	Res/NonRes							
AL EFFECT) (mm)	1.06	1.06	1.06	1.06	1.06	1.91 1.91 0.69	1.91
NONLINEAR OPTICAL EFFECT	$n_2 (cm^2/MW)$							
·	x^{\prime} or (τ)	(1E-33)	(9.9E-33)	(1.7E-32)	(8.8E-32)	(2.86-32)	6E-13(z) 3E-14(x)	3E-13
	FORM	SOLN SOLN	SOLN	/CH, C1, SÖLN	SOLN	SOLN	222	23
MOLECULE/MATERIAL	NAME STRUCTURE	CI CI NIMETHYLAMINOSTILBENE/CHC1, SOLN SOLN	4-NITRO-4'-AMINOSTILBENE/CH2C12	0_2 N \bigcirc N(CH ₃) ₂	DMA-NS/CHC13	DMA-PNB/CH ₂ CL ₂ (CH ₃) ₂ NC CH=CH-CH=CHNO ₂	NEWATIC MBBA CH ₃ OC ₆ H ₄ CHNC ₆ H ₄ (CH ₂) ₃ CH ₃	ISOTROPIC MBBA CH ₃ OC ₆ H ₄ CHNC ₆ H ₄ (CH ₂) ₃ CH ₃

CLASS: LONG CHAIN UNSATURATED

	YEAR	1974 1974	1974 1974	1974	1974	1974
REFERENCES	REF#	88	8 8 98	%	9 8	98
REFE	AUTHOR	HERMANN	HERMANN	HERMANN	HERMANN	HERMANN
	METHOD	THG	THG	THG	THG	1146
	TIME	1 1 1 1 1				
	Res/NonRes					
AL EFFECT	(mm) لا	1.89	1.89	1.89	1.89	1.89 2.47
NONLINEAR OPTICAL EFFECT	$n_2 (cm^2/MW)$					
,	x^3 or (γ) (esu)	5.0E-13 (4.6E-35)	1.1E-12 (9E-35)	(1.3E-34)	(3E-34)	(1.7E-32) (4E-33)
	FORM	MLTN	MLTN	SOLN	SOLN	SOLN
MOLECULE/MATERIAL	NAME STRUCTURE	RETINOL H3C CH3 CH2 CH2 CH2OH CH3	RETINAL H ₃ C CH ₃ CH ₃ CH ₃ CH ₃ CH ₃	trans-RETINAL/DMSO (10620 molecules/cm³)	cis-trans BIXINE/DMSO (10E20 molecules/cm³)	DODECAPRENO-RETA-CAROTENE/C ₆ H ₆ (10E18 molecules/cm ³)

CLASS: LONG CHAIN UNSATURATED

	YEAR	1973 1974 1974 1987 1987	1987 1987	1987	1987
REFERENCES	REF#	87 886 83 83	83.	833	88
REFE	AUTHOR	HERMANN HERMANN HERMANN MALONEY MALONEY	MALONEY	MALONEY	MALONEY
	метнор	THG THG THG DEWM DFWM	DFWM DFWM	DFWM DFWM	DFWM DFWM
	TIME	 			
AL EFFECT	Res/NonRes	Ä ««	ec ec	cc 0c	cc cc
	у (нв)	1.89 1.89 2.47 1.064 1.064	1.064	1.064	1.064
NONLINEAR OPTICAL EFFECT	$n_2 (cm^2/MW)$	8.1E-8*		_ :	
;	(3) (3) (4) (esq)	16-12 (1.46-33) (1.16-33) 1.46-13* (7.66-31)	1.9E-12" (5.2E-30)***	5.7E-13*	7.3E-13** (2.3E-29)***
	FORM	GLASS SOLN SOLN SOLN SOLN SOLN	SOLN	SOLN	SOLN
MOLECULE/MATERIAL	STRUCTURE	BETA-CAROTENE (10E19/cm³) / C, H ₆ (10E19/cm³) / C ⁶ H ₆ (10E19/cm³) / C ⁶ H ₆ (FTHANOL	NIGROSINE/WATER	DITIC/METHANOL CT & CONCONTROL CT & CO	DNTPC/METHANOL
	NAME	BETA-(10E. (10E: (10E:	NI GRO	DTTC/I	DNTPC

CONVERTED FROM esu TO cm²/MW USING: 1 esu = 8.1×10^3 cm²/MW.127 "CONVERTED FROM MKS(m²/V²) TO esu USING: 10^{-14} esu = 1.4×10^{-2} MKS.52 "CONVERTED FROM MKS(m²/V²) TO esu USING $\gamma_{\rm exu} = \gamma_{\rm S1} \times 7.16 \times 10^{13}$.83

CLASS: LONG CHAIN UNSATURATED

REFERENCES	REF# YEAR	83 1987 83 1987	83 1987 83 1987	83 1987 83 1987	78 1988	78 1988	f 78 1988
REF	AUTHOR	MALONEY	MALONEY	MALONEY	GARITO [†]	GARITO	GARITO [‡]
	METHOD	DFWM	DFWM	DFWM	EFISH	EFISH	EFISH
	TIME		7.				
	Res/NonRes	cc cc	# #	æ æ		·	
AL SFFECT	У (им)	1.064	1.064	1.064	69.0	69.0	0.65
NONLINEAR OPTICAL SFFECT	n ₂ (cm ² /MW)	•	:	:			
	χ^3 or (τ) (esu)	1.3E-12° (1.9E-28)	1.5E-12* (1.4E-28)	8.9E-12* (9.1E-29)	(3.5E-36)	(1.1E-35)	(1.8E-36)
	FORM	NJOS	SOLN	SOLN			
MOLECULE/MATERIAL	STRUCTURE	A9860/1,2 DICHLOROETHANE Capture Contract Contract Capture Contr	IR5/1,2 DICHLOROETHANE Control Contro	S501/1,2 DICHLOROETHANE	BUTADIENE	HEXATRIENE (60%trans)	OCTATETRAENE (cis)
	NAME	A986C	185/1	8501,	BUTAI	HEXA	OCTA

CONVERTED FROM MKS(m²/v²) TO esu USING: 10^{.14} esu = 1.4 × 10⁻²² MKS.52 "CONVERTED FROM MKS(m²/v²) TO esu USING γ_{cu} = γ_{s1} × 7.16 × 10¹³.83

CLASS: LONG CHAIN UNSATURATED

	ا ا ا	\0 m	10					
,	YEAR	1986 1988	1985	 .	 	 		_
REFERENCES	REF#	47 116	85			 ·		1 00 5
REFEI	АОТНОВ	LIPSCOMB ALTMAN	GARITO					MW FOR CS.
	метнор	DFWM OKE	THG					4E-7 cm²,
	TIME	sd ps						$n_2 = 1.$
	Res/NonRes	NR NR						= 6.8E-13 esu AMD n_2 = 1.4E-7 cm ² /MW FOR CS ₂ .185 = 6.8E-13 esu AND n_2 = 1.4E-7 cm ² /MW FOR CS ₂ .185
AL EPFECT	λ (μα)	0.53 0.53						
NONLINEAR OPTICAL EFFECT	$(egu)^{n_2} (cm^2/MW)$	5.0E-6* 8.4E-7*	8.1E-7***					OBTAINED THE TABLE VALUE USING A VALUE OF x^3 OBTAINED THE TABLE VALUE USING A VALUE OF x^3 or $_2$ /MW USING: 1 esu = 8.1 x 10 ³ cm ² /MW. ¹²⁷
	x^3 or (7) (esu)	2.4E-11* .8E-13*	4E-12					E VALUE US E VALUE US esu = 8.1
	FORM	TARY				 	····	THE TABI THE TABI
MOLECULE/MATERIAL	STRUCTURE	PC6S: A BIPHENYL, SIDE-CHAIN LIQUID CRYSTAL POLYMER; A PROPRIETARY PRODUCT OF HOECHST-CELANESE CORPORATION	DVDA LIQUID CRYSTAL					**REPORTED AS 36 x CS2. OBTAINED THE TABLE VALUE USING A VALUE OF X3. ***. OBTAINED THE TABLE VALUE USING A VALUE OF X3. ***********************************
	NAME	PC6S: A LIQUID (PRODUCT	DVDA LIK		 *************			*REPORT ** REPOR*

CLASS: ORGANOMETALLICS

	YEAR	1987	1986 1986	1987
REFERENCES	REF#	143	145 145	833
REFE	AUTHOR	FRAZIER	KAJZAR KAJZAR	MALONEY
	METHOD	THG	THG	DFWM
	TIME			
	Res/Nonfos	αs	R R	cc cc
AL EFFECT	(mrd) <	0.53	1.06	1.064
NONLINEAR OPTICAL EFFECT	n ₂ (cm ² /MW)	8.1E-6*		:
ON	x^3 or (γ) (esu)	3.9E-11*	1.5E-12 TOO SMALL	1.2E-12** (6.2E-29)***
	FORM	Ħ	TF	SOLN
MOLECULE/MATERIAL	STRUCTURE	ALLADIUM POLY-YNE PBu3 PBu3 PBu3	ILANE CH3	BDN/TDLUENE (c+,),v-C-5 S-C-C (c+,),v-C-S (c+,),v-C-S
	NAME	PALLADIUM POLY-YN	POLYSILANE	BDN/T

REPORTED AS 58 n_2 (CS₂). OBTAINED USING A VALUE OF x^3 = 6.8E-13 esu AND n_2 = 1.4E-7 cm²/MW FOR CS₂.185 **CONVERTED FROM MKS(m²/V²) TO esu USING: 10^{-14} esu = 1.4 x 10^{-22} MKS.52 **CONVERTED FROM MKS(m²/V²) TO esu USING γ_{ex} = γ_{s1} x 7.16 x 10^{13} .83

CLASS: MISCELLANIOUS

CLASS: MISCELLANEOUS

		1
REFERENCES	YEAR	19888
	REF#	192
		BARBARA
	METHOD	DEWN
	TIME	ι α Cl
	Res/NonRes	
AL EFFECT	(((((((((((((((((((0.53
NONLINEAR OPTICAL EFFECT	$\chi^3 \text{ or } (\gamma)$ (esu) $n_2 (cm^2/MW)$	
NON	$\chi^3 \text{ or } (\gamma)$	1.125-11
	FORM	Et Et
MOLECULE/MATERIAL	STRUCTURE	POLYACENE GUINONE in POLY (VINYL CHLORIDE) 104 by weight 0 0 CCH ₃
•	NAME	POLYACEN

CLASS: MISCELLANEOUS

	YEAR	1983 1983	1983 1983	1983 1983	1983 1983 1976 1976	1983 1983	1983 1983 1976 1976	1983 1983	1983 1983
REFERENCES	REF#	115	115 115	115 115	115 115 54 54	115 115	115 115 54 54	115 115	115 115
REFER	AUTHOR	MEREDITH MEREDITH	MEREDITH MEREDITH	MEREDITH MEREDITH	MEREDITH MEREDITH LEVINE LEVINE	MEREDITH MEREDITH	MEREDITH MEREDITH LEVINE LEVINE	MEREDITH MEREDITH	MEREDITH MEREDITH
	METHOD	THG	THG	THG	THG THG EFISH EFISH	THG	THG THG EFISH EFISH	THG	THG
NONLINEAR OPTICAL EFFECT	TIME	 							
	Res/NonRes	æ æ	cc cc	æ æ	~ ~ ~ ~	жш	R R NR NR	œœ	αч
	(mg) ~	1.9	1.9	1.9	9.11 9.05 6.13 9.05 1.33	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9
	$n_2 (cm^2/MW)$								•
	x^3 or (τ)	1.1E-13 (4.3E-36)	1.4E-13 (5.4E-36)	2.4E-13 (8.2E-36)	1.4E-13 (5.4E-36) 1.7E-13 (4.3E-35)	1.0E-13 (4.13E-36)	1.7E-13 (5.7E-36) 3.3E-13 (7.8E-36)	9.9E-14 (3.4E-36)	2.5E-14 (8.7E-37)
	FORM	רוסת רוסת	LIQU	LIQU	7100 7100 7100 7100	LIQU	7100 7100 7100 7100	רוסת	7100 7100
MOLECULE/MATERIAL	NAME STRUCTURE	CHLOROBENZENE CHLOROBENZENE	BROMOBENZENE () Br	IODOBENZENE	N:TROBENZENE	CYANOBENZENF	ANILINE NH2	PYRIDINE	ACETONITRILE CH ₃ CN

CLASS: MIRCELLANEOUS

_	MOLECULE/MATERIAL	igo	$\int_{x^3} \text{ or } (\tau)$	NONLINEAR OPTICAL EFFECT	L EFFECT	3	() () () () () () () () () ()		REFI	REFERENCES	.
NAME	STRUCTURE	FORM	(esa)	n ₂ (cm ² /MW)	(国)	Res/NonRes	TIME	METHOD	AUTHOR	REF#	YEAR
METHANOL	сн³он	716U L16U	2.9E-14 (8.0E-37)		1.9	oc oc		THG	MEREDITH MEREDITH	115 115	1983 1983
ETHANOL	сн³сн⁵он	L19U L19U	3.7E-14 (1.3E-36)		1.9	or or		THG	MEREDITH MEREDITH	115 115	1983 1983
2-PROPANOL	сн ₃ сн(он)сн ₃	LIQU LIQU	4.1E-14 (1.9E-36)		1.9 1.9	ac ac		THG	MEREDITH MEREDITH	115	1983 1983
2-PROPANONE	сн ₃ с(0)сн ₃	L19U L19U	4.4E-14 (2.0E-36)		1.9	cc cc		THG	MEREDITH MEREDITH	115 115	1983 1983
TETRAHYDROFURAN	HyC—CH; HyC—CH;	rion rion	5.0E-14 (2.2E-36)		1.9	æ œ		THG	MEREDITH MEREDITH	115	1983 1983
METHYL CYCLOHEXANE	HEXANE H_3 C \leftarrow	7160 7160	5.9E-14 (4.6E-36)		1.9	æ æ		7HG 7HG	MEREDITH MEREDITH	115	1983 1983
CARBON 1ETRACHLORIDE	CHLORIDE CC14	1001 1001	6.7E-14 (3.1E-36)		1.9	œœ		THG	MEREDITH MEREDITH	115 115	1983 1983
CHLOROFORM	CHC13	רופת	5.8E-14		1.9	R?		THG	MEREDITH	115	1983
TET:\achioroethane	THANE C2H2C14	רוסת	8.6E-14		1.9	R?		THG	МЕКЕРІТН	115	1983
O-NITROANILINE	NE .	0017 1160	4.8E-12 (1.2E-34)		1.318	NR? NR?		EFISH EFISH	LEVINE LEVINE	22	1976 1976
	H ₂ N(_)										
	NO2										

CLASS: MISCELLANEOUS

	YEAR	1976 1976	1976 1976	1987 1987 1987 1987	1987 1987 1987 1987	1987 1987 1987	1987 1987 1987
REFERENCES	REF#	4 <u>7</u>	አ _ጀ	52 52 52 52	525	52.52	52 22
REFE	AUTHOR	LEVINE	LEVINE	KAJZAR KAJZAR KAJZAR KAJZAR	KAJZAR KAJZAR KAJZAR KAJZAR	KAJZAR KAJZAR KAJZAR	KAJZAR KAJZAR KAJZAR
	METHOD	EFISH EFISH	EFISH EFISH	146 146 146	746 746 746	THG THG THG	746 746 746
	TIME	i i i i					
	Res/NonRes	NR? NR?	NR? NR?				
AL EFFECT) (mm)	1.318	1.318	1.064 1.064 1.064 1.064	1.064 1.064 1.064 1.064	1.064 1.064 1.064	1.064 1.064 1.064
NONLINEAR OPTICAL EFFECT	n ₂ (cm ² /MW)						
	x^3 or (x) (esu)	3.3E-12 (8.5E-35)	2.0E-11 (5E-34)	4.7E-14 5.0E-14 5.4E-14 6.0E-14	5.6E-14 6.1E-14 6.5E-14 6.7E-14	7.5E-14 6.9E-14 6.9E-14	1.36-13 1.26-13 1.06-13
	FORM	noi Tion	LIQU	רזסת	riðn	רוסת	ridn
MOLECULE/MATERIAL	STRUCT	M-NITROANILINE NO2	P-NITROANILINE H2N NO2	CH ₃ (CH ₂) _{n-2} CH ₃ n=6 n=8 n=10 n=16	CH ₃ (CH ₂) _{n-2} CH ₂ C1 n=6 n=10 n=12 n=14	CH ₃ (CH ₂) _{n-2} CH ₂ Br n=6 n=10 n=14	CH ₃ (CH ₂) _{n-2} CH ₂ I n=6 n=8 n=10
	NAME	M-NITR	P-NITRO				-

CLASS: INCRGANICS

	YEAR	1987 1987	1986	1987	1987 1987 1987 1987 1987 1987	1987 1981	1987 1981	1981	1981	1981	1987
REFERENCES	REF#	149 149	148	30	8888888	40 110	40 110	110	110	110	181
REFE	AUTHOR	TOMPKIN	KRAMER	ROSSIGNOL	NASU NASU NASU NASU NASU NASU NASU	KOWEL	KOWEL	CHANG	CHANG	CHANG	WOLFF
	METHOD	SATIN	DFWM	DFWM							non-DFWM
	TIME	BSec	sec	ns							e
	Res/NonRes	ct ct	œ	œ	# # # # # # # # # # # # # # # # # # #	NR	N	N.	NR	NR	-
AL EFFECT	(<u>E</u>)	0.514 0.467	0.467	0.588	1.060 1.060 1.060 1.060 1.060 1.060 1.060	0.820	5.4 9-24	4-14	2-14	1.3-7	10.6 10.6 7 cm²/MW.127
NONLINEAR OPTICAL EFFECT	$n_2 (cm^2/MW)$	0.21 0.16			7.76-10° 1.88-9° 7.86-9° 2.76-9° 1.16-8° 2.76-9° 1.26-9° 1.96-7°	4E-4 1.1E-6*	3E-3 (77K) 6.5E-5	1.6E-5**	1E-5•	7.1E-7**	1.6E-4 -1E-4 esu = 8.1 x 10^3 cm ² /MW. ¹²⁷ ISING: 1 MKS = 7.3 x 10^{12}
NC (4)	(esu	0.02 0.06	1	1E-8		0.4 1.2E-11	1 8E-10	1.8E-10	1.5E-10	8.0E-12	1.6E-4 -1E-4 su = 8.1 x 1
	FORM	Н сш ³) сп ³)	z								TF 1.("1.0" TF 1.0 TO Cm ² /MW USING:
MOLECULE/MATERIAL	STRUCTURE	Pb/Sn FLUOROSPHOSPHATE GLASS WITH ACRIDINE ORANGE (8E17 molecules/cm ³ ACRIDINE YELLOW (8E17 molecules/cm ³	BORIC ACID GLASS WITH FLUORESCEIN (10E18 molecules/cm³)	DOPED GLASS	<i>د</i> ع				^-	^ -	HgTe Hg7re AMD Hg2nTe/CdTe SUPERLATTICES CONVERTED FROM esu TO cm²/MW US CONVERTED FROM MKS(m²/V²) TO c
•	NAME	Pb/Sn l ACRIDIA ACRIDIA	BORIC / (10618	CdS, Se,	CRVSTALS NAF NAC1 NABL KC1 KC1 CAF CAF COSF	GaAs	InSb	InAs	Ge<111>	Si<111)	HgTe HgTe/cdTe Au CONVE

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